IN THIS NUMBER—"THE NAVY OF THE UNITED STATES"—FOUR-PAGE ILLUSTRATION.

Arbor School District
ONE,
BOR, MICH.

HARPER'S WEEKLY
A JOURNAL OF CIVILIZATION

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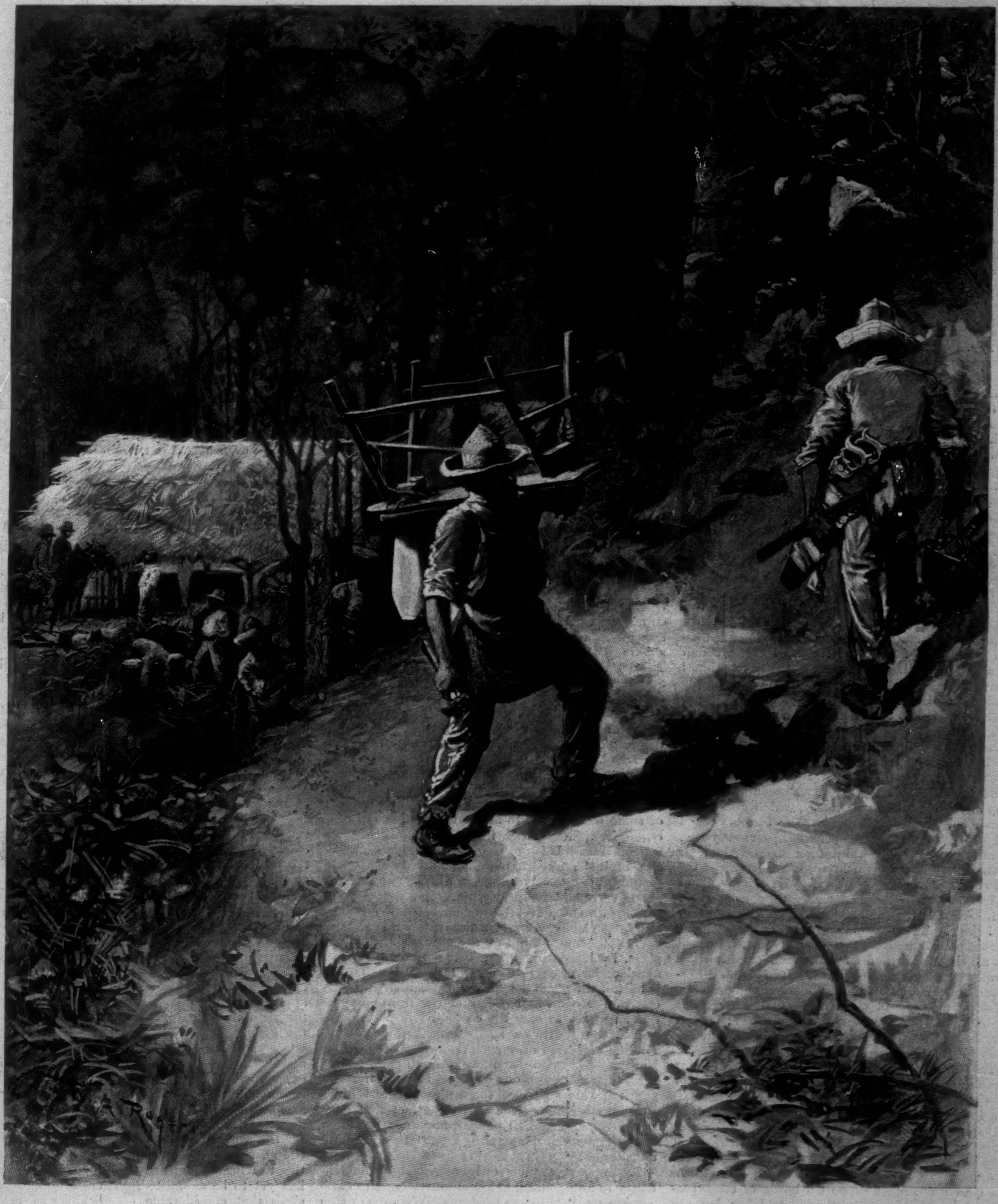

WITH THE CUBAN INSURGENTS—A HURRIED EXIT FROM THE GOVERNMENT WORKSHOP AT PICO BLANCO.

DRAWN BY W. A. ROGERS, FROM PHOTOGRAPHS AND DESCRIPTIONS BY THOMAS ROBINSON DAWLEY, JR., OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.—[SEE PAGE 607.]

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RELIEF FOR THE FARMERS.

EVERYBODY concedes that the farmers of the country have grievances. As a class they are perhaps given to complaints at all times, but the course of events in recent years has furnished sufficient reason for discontent. The prices of many farm products have fallen, and at the same time taxes have increased.

The politicians, of course, have been ready with remedies. One set has told the farmers that their sufferings can be relieved by the easy device of passing a new tariff bill. Another set has assured them that their troubles would be ended by the enactment of a free-coinage law. Republicans and Bryanites alike have treated the grievances of the agricultural population as due solely to the course of legislation enacted at Washington, and to be removed only by other legislation at the national capital.

Nothing could be more refreshing than to turn from these equally absurd positions of rival politicians to a non-partisan exposition of a real grievance of the farmers, which they can themselves easily get rid of. Such an exposition is presented by Professor **James H. Hyslop**, of Columbia University, in the *Forum*, as the result of his observations and investigations in Ohio and Indiana last year. The visitor found the farmers complaining that prices for grain were low, while farm labor was as high as it had been in more prosperous times, and inclining to accept this as inevitable under the existing monetary standard. Indeed, they attributed their troubles in this respect altogether to the operation of causes outside their own environment.

Professor **Hyslop**, however, soon discovered that there was a real cause of complaint which nobody thought of. In these two States of the central West the farmers have almost imperceptibly encouraged pauperism to such an extent that poor men will not work for anything short of the highest pay, and that the taxes for poor relief have reached appalling proportions. Within ten years the number of people given out-door relief during the last month of summer in the capital county of Ohio rose from 1692 to 10,733, or about one-tenth of the whole population; and this period ended before the panic of 1893, and the hard times which have followed it. Nor was this an exceptional case. In the whole State the number of people outside the infirmaries who received assistance grew from 8022 to 54,121 in the ten years between 1881 and 1891.

Taught thus during a period of prosperity that the State owed them a living, this class of people only grew more overbearing after the business depression set in. Last year there was a great corn crop in that part of the country, which created an unusual demand for labor, but the farmers could not afford to pay the high prices of previous years. In many cases they could not get anybody in their towns to work for them at anything less than the old rates of "flush times," and if outsiders offered their services on reduced terms, they were often intimidated by the home laborers, and left for fear of injury. The reason was that every resident knew that, no matter how lazy he was, he could get all that he needed from the county authorities simply by making application. It made no difference if he went to the county commissioners after refusing an offer of work at good wages because he had at some time received higher pay; he was sure to receive food, fuel, and clothing at the expense of the community while he shirked.

This abuse of charity alone is enough to account for a large share of the suffering complained of by the farmers of Ohio and Indiana, for the Eastern inquirer found conditions in this regard much the same in the two States. No community can prosper which teaches the idle and shiftless that they are sure of a good living at the public expense. Agriculture cannot thrive when the farmers who work must support a horde of other people who are quite as well able to labor, but are told by society that they need not unless they can get their own terms. No monetary standard will put the finances of a county on a solid basis when its authorities are ready to issue $5000 bonds to pay a deficit caused by poor relief which never ought to have been granted.

The evil which Professor **Hyslop** unearthed in Ohio and Indiana is not the only one from which the farmers suffer through their own fault. During the campaign of last fall the fact was clearly demonstrated that certain counties in Minnesota were prosperous while others were in distress, and that the reason for the difference was the fact that one set still stuck to the raising of wheat alone, while the other had mastered the advantages of diversified agriculture. Plenty of cases were shown where farming communities in that State had not known the meaning of the expression "hard times," although in others the people were firmly convinced that prosperity would be impossible so long as the gold standard should be maintained.

The great misfortune of the nation is the fact that the people have so long been taught that they depend upon the government for everything. Whether it be a high tariff or the silver standard which is advocated as the sure cure for all ills, the effect is the same. The citizen is led to believe that help is to be obtained only from Washington. The result is that the voter pays less and less attention to the government of his town and county and State, and the farmer ceases to realize the necessity of improving his methods of agriculture. Abuses thrive under the very eyes of the people, but escape detection because the popular gaze is constantly directed toward the Capitol at Washington.

THE TARIFF BILLS AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

In a recent speech at Philadelphia, ex-Secretary **Olney** emphasized the fact that it is only by the legislation of Congress that foreign markets are closed to American products. His experience in diplomacy lends weight to what he said, for the tariff measures of 1894 called out protests against the discriminating and burdensome duties contained in them. The protests of foreign governments against the rates of the **Dingley** and Senate bills have been even stronger and more pointed, and unless some attention is paid to them, retaliatory acts will be framed and enforced.

So long as American products are exported upon their own merits, no foreign market will refuse to receive them. For commerce is not conducted on sentiment, but on profit; and the object of the purchaser is to obtain the largest quantity of high quality at the lowest cost to himself. The high quality of wheat, flour, provisions, tobacco, petroleum, and cotton from the United States has created and maintained an immense export in the face of competition from like products of other countries. Our trade-marks have been copied and our manufactures counterfeited, in the hope of shaking the deservedly high repute of our exports. The results have only reacted upon the forgers, and have had no influence upon the great streams of American commerce. International trade, when conducted on free and unrestricted lines, need fear no harm from so unintelligent methods of competition. The intelligent merchant is able to detect the fraud.

When Congress deliberately discriminates among the nations trading with the United States, and seeks to impose penalty duties upon the products of some nations and to admit the products of others under lighter duties, the effects upon trade are mischievous. It is not possible to escape such duties, and the foreign merchant, seeing his trade placed under disadvantage, naturally appeals to his government for protection. If a formal protest is of no avail, retaliatory measures are taken, and laws placing American products under restrictions and even prohibition are enforced. As Congress, in legislating against the foreign article, acted under pressure of some interest, and not in behalf of the general public, the commercial interests of the country suffer, and the innocent producer is made to bear the cost. By imposing discriminating duties on sugar from Europe, we invite the exclusion of our provisions and flour from Europe. By taxing wool, we open an opportunity for higher duties on our products brought into Argentina. How general those measures of retaliation may become is shown by the fact that only two great commercial powers have not protested formally against the pending tariff bills—England and Russia.

Extreme protection only aggravates this tendency to antagonize foreign countries, and to close foreign markets to our products. With every step towards higher duties the protests have been more general and emphatic. For high duties mean restriction on trade, and restriction based upon a reason that will not bear examination—the wish to favor some private enterprise at public expense. The advantage to the favored interest obtained by such legislation is very small when compared with the injury inflicted upon our export trade, and with each year's commerce the sphere of possible injury becomes greater. $870,000,000 in merchandise was exported in 1896; more than three-fourths of this great trade can be put at a serious disadvantage in foreign markets by even moderate duties discriminating against American products. For the margin of successful competition is small, and is easily wiped out in the face of the increasing number of competitors. Congress, in pursuing the small gain to be secured through extreme protection, will inevitably inflict a great loss on far more profitable branches of production.

THE AUSTRALIAN COMMONWEALTH.

The Commonwealth of Australia is the somewhat clumsy title decided upon by the Federal Convention of the Australian Colonies as, on the whole, the most suitable for the proposed federation of the states now occupying the island-continent of the South Pacific. The United States of Australia and the Dominion of Australia were the two other titles proposed and abandoned—the first, apparently, because it savored too much of an independent nationality, and the second because the name of Dominion had already been assumed by Canada, with whose form of federation the Australian convention had but little sympathy. There is not, it may be, very much in a name, and yet the discussion of the title for the proposed federation of Australia was not without significance. As we fully expected, it has proved that the ideas of Australian statesmen are in many respects more advanced than were those of Canada at the time the Dominion was constituted, and that while there is no present want of loyalty to the British Empire, there is a distinct recognition of the fact that the constitution of an Australian federation may be a first step towards the realization of a fuller and more individual national life.

The proposed constitution is one which, with the single exception of the reservation of the right of the British Government to appoint a governor-general from time to time, would answer all the purposes of a separate national government for Australia.

It makes provision for two Houses of a federal legislature—a Senate to represent the states, with six members for each colony, elected by manhood suffrage of the inhabitants voting as a single electorate, and a second chamber to be elected on a basis of population, one member for every fifty thousand inhabitants. It specifies that the control of all customs taxation shall vest in the federal parliament, together with the control of the military forces of the Commonwealth, of the laws relating to marriage and inheritance, to light-houses and merchant shipping, to the admission and naturalization of aliens, to the control of banking and of the mints, and to the postal and telegraph systems of the continent. On the other hand, it proposes to safeguard the separate states in the possession of all powers of self-government not expressly handed over to the federal power; it provides that their boundaries may not be altered, nor their free control and disposition of their lands interfered with; that their exclusive rights of land and of direct taxation shall not be infringed; and that their great public works—the railroads of the country—shall remain under the control of the state parliaments, subject only to the provisos that they shall be at all times available for the transport of troops or munitions of war on the requisition of the federal authorities, and that they shall not be used for any purposes of a differential tariff discriminating between the inhabitants of the different states.

These, and the constitution of a federal supreme court which shall have sole cognizance of all federal questions, and shall also act as a final court of appeal from the courts of the different states, are the main features of the constitution framed by the convention; and it must be added that the work seems to have been performed with statesmanlike calmness and a wide knowledge of the experience of other federations, as well as with a commendable spirit of fairness and mutual concession on the part of the representatives of the larger and smaller colonies. It remains to be seen how far the same qualities will be found to extend to the mass of the people in the separate communities, to whose judgment the proposed constitution has yet to be submitted. There are not wanting signs that considerable opposition will arise in some of these, which may even now serve to show that the time for the consolidation of the colonies of Australia into a strong federation has not yet arrived.

MUNICIPAL BATHS.

One of the conditions precedent to the maintenance of good government in the city of New York (all boroughs included), or any other city, is that the people who live in that city should know what returns they are entitled to expect for the taxes or rents that they pay. The disposition is always strong to consider that whatever is is right, or if not actually right, as nearly right as could be expected. When the streets were dirty in New York it was supposed that there was no help for it; but it seems there was help for it, for now the streets are clean. It is one of the intentions of the Citizens' Union to secure for the people of New York the advantages and comforts to which they seem to be entitled, and one of its first steps is to circulate information about the value and reasonableness of some of the innovations it calls for. One clause in its recent "declaration" reads, "We demand that baths and lavatories adequate to the public needs shall be established." In support and explanation of this demand it has issued "Pamphlet No. 1," which sets forth the existing scarcity of public baths and lavatories in New York, the pressing need of them, and the provision that other and older or better regulated cities have made for their people in this particular. The pamphlet points out the extreme density of population in many districts in New York, quotes from the report of the Tenement-House Commission of 1894 anent the usefulness of baths to preserve health and prevent and cure disease, tells what provision has been made for public cleanliness in London, Liverpool, Stuttgart, Hamburg, and other European cities, and gives pictures of some of their municipal bath-houses. It also tells what has been done already towards the building of baths in New York, and what prospect there is that this need will be supplied. The Union wants baths where not only people who have no possible chance to bathe at home may wash themselves, but where women may carry the clothes of their households, and do their family washing in a convenient laundry properly equipped, instead of under difficulties in a tenement-house room. New York has, as yet, no municipal public baths except the swimming-baths on the river-front. It expects to have one soon, however, at the corner of Suffolk and Division streets. The land for it has been condemned, $200,000 has been set aside for its construction, and the plans for it have been approved by the Commissioner of Public Works.

THE MODERN "GRADUATE."

Humiliating indeed is the entrance upon "real life" of the modern graduate compared with the prestige attending that of his forerunners. By modern notions his "sheepskin" is a diploma of disqualification; a certificate that its possessor knows nothing of what alone is worth knowing—practical affairs—and must begin their acquisition by forgetting all that he has hitherto willingly (or unwillingly) acquired during four years at college. The three "learned professions," like the "three R's," have lost their old-time distinction—they are only other ways of "getting a living."

Of a truth this is brought home to the graduate by the changed character of the very Commencement which ushers (or "hustles") him out of the gates of Alma Mater. His part in it is only a minor one at best, an ostensible occasion, indeed, for observing the day, but actually an opportunity for the elevation of others at his expense. Commencement is still a day of "graduates," but of graduates of quite another sort—the real graduates, those old fellows who now dominate the campus, and hold a feast called the "alumni dinner"—the appropriate climax of the whole affair. In short, the coming graduate is almost crowded off what is left to him of the "Commencement stage."

O tempora! O mores! What a strange evolution it is when one recalls the ancient glories of that day of days, the original New England Commencement. To that, as Edward Quincy recounts in the Harvard Book, every town in the Commonwealth sent its clergyman and "chief inhabitant." Then it was that the Old Meeting-House was "gorgeous" with gold lace and silver-hilted rapiers, with embroidered waistcoats and gowns of brocade; that the belle of the period has been known to sit up in one chair all the night before, her hair having been dressed that evening by the only coiffeur of the town (so great was the demand for him), that the triumph of his art might not be marred; that the crowning attraction might be—as at Yale's "splendid Commencement" in 1781, at the close of the Revolutionary war—an oration on Oriental Learning by the president (Dr. Stiles) edifyingly delivered in Hebrew, Chaldee, and Arabic; that the graduating "scholar" might discuss some such subject as "The Effects of Science in Diminishing the Empire of the Imagination"; that the programme was often diversified with anthems, debates, and "dialogues," these last being what we should call plays of a historical character, as, for example, "The Norman Conquest"; that the college authorities passed statute after statute to suppress unseemly noise and drunkenness, as well as undue extravagance of dress and entertainment; that throngs of every sort invaded the college town, whose streets were lined with booths as at a fair; that the very date was popularly used to reckon by, as we use Christmas or Fourth of July.

Commencement day was then an event, and its graduate a personage. The name alone remains to tell the tale. Modern college life, in the range of its opportunities and the diversity of its interests, as, graduating itself from a past of tradition, it is becoming slowly adapted to the demands of the present and the pressure of numbers, means more and means less—more in equipment for conditions as they are, but less, infinitely less, in prestige measured by conditions as they were.

ARMED OR UNARMED PEACE.

The address recently delivered before the Naval War College at Newport by our new Assistant Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, has deservedly attracted much attention. It was a very eloquent and forcible defence of the proposition that this republic must have a great navy in order to be well prepared for war, and that being well prepared for war is the surest means of preserving peace. The building of a big navy was thus presented to us as essentially a peace measure.

Had this plea for the preservation of peace by the construction of a large number of war-ships come from a member of the Peace Society, or from any one else known as an earnest advocate of the peaceable settlement of international disputes, it would stand on firmer ground than it does coming from Mr. Roosevelt. This is said in the kindest spirit, and without the slightest desire to disparage his character or the eminent services he has in various ways rendered to the public. The fact is that Mr. Roosevelt has always with perfect frankness confessed himself to be what is currently called a Jingo. But he stands foremost among the sincere and honest men of that class. He is not one of those who would urge his country into a war, and then try to get a contract or some cheap popularity by talking or writing bloody patriotism while others had to do the fighting. He would be prompt to seek the post of danger for himself. The story is told of him that some years ago, when there seemed to be a prospect of a conflict with Chile, Mr. Roosevelt wrote to the War Department asking for himself the privilege of being the first volunteer for active service. And it is probably doing him no injustice to say that when the Chilian trouble was amicably composed, he may have been a little disappointed by being thus deprived of the chance of fighting for his country. Aside from his patriotic impulses, Mr. Roosevelt is essentially a fighting man by temperament. Nobody relishes the "joy of the conflict" with greater zest than he does; and it is therefore not surprising that a peace argument should have been an awkward and somewhat bewildering task to him.

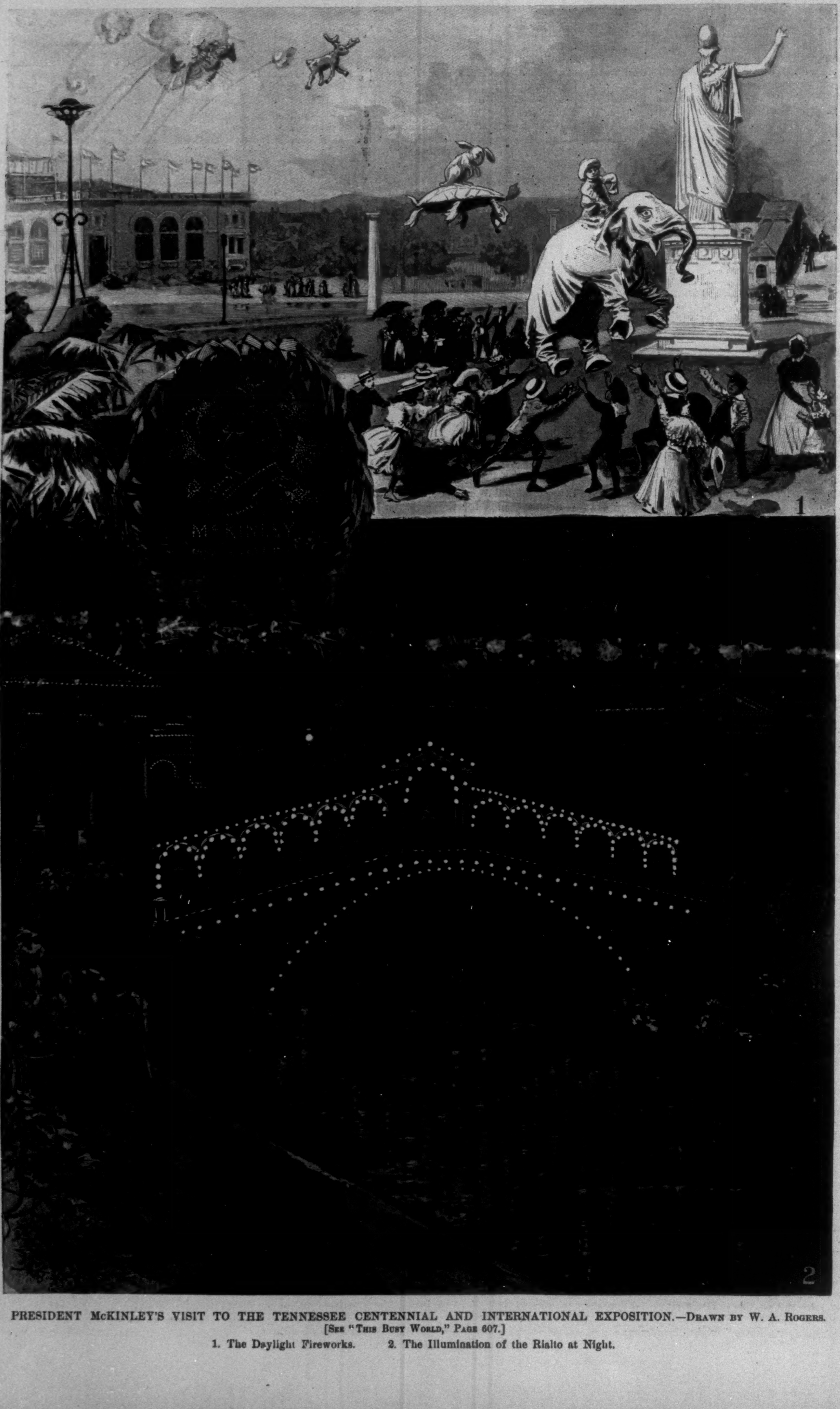
Every attentive reader of Mr. Roosevelt's oration will be struck by the bellicose fervor prevading it. It is really a panegyric on war. With almost poetic enthusiasm he describes how war arouses noble emotions, stimulates patriotism, brings forth heroic examples, and how "no triumph of peace is quite so great as the supreme triumphs of war." To be sure, he has also a word of recognition for the merits of peace, but it is rather of the conventional and perfunctory kind. Peace must be quite honorable to be entitled to respect, and Mr. Roosevelt seems to think that we must look sharp or peace will be as likely as not to become dishonorable and craven without our knowing it. On the whole he is inclined to believe that a long peace will have a tendency to make a people effeminate and unpatriotic, and that it will require an occasional spell of blood-letting and devastation to restore or keep up the necessary vigor, manliness, elevation of sentiment, and patriotic devotion. Mr. Roosevelt in his combative ardor has probably not noticed the logical quandary into which he has reasoned himself. It is this: according to him a long peace has a tendency to make a people effeminate and unpatriotic, while war will invigorate a people and inspire patriotism. But he argues also that the building of a great fleet of war-ships will be a means not to bring on war, but to preserve peace. Ergo, the building of a great war fleet will effect that which promotes effeminacy and languishing patriotism. Mr. Roosevelt, according to his own theory, will hardly accept this result as satisfactory to himself. His argument in favor of a big war fleet as an instrumentality of peace comes thus to an untimely end.

In truth those among us who are really in favor of peaceable methods of adjusting international differences are not in favor of building a great war fleet, while almost all the zealous advocates of a great war fleet belong to the Jingo class, many of whom are not nearly as honest and unselfish as Mr. Roosevelt is, and would hesitate little to drive their country into a war with some foreign power or another without necessity.

The reason why the true friends of peace are opposed to the building of a big navy is a very simple one. We do not need such a navy for the maintenance of peace between the United States and foreign nations. Since the war of 1812, when this republic was so small and feeble that other powers thought they could kick and cuff it with impunity, we have not had another foreign war save that with Mexico, which was a war of aggression and conquest on our part. With that exception we have lived at peace with the world. During that long period we never had a navy worth speaking of in comparison with those of the great naval powers, except during our civil war, when we had our hands full at home. And yet, in spite of our having no navy, our rights were respected and our interests never lacked protection; and whenever we had any just cause of complaint we never found it difficult to obtain our dues by peaceable methods. In fact, we have been permitted to do some things which would not have been tolerated if done by other nations. Why? Not because the great powers are particularly fond of us, but because there is not one of them that can venture upon a serious quarrel with us without exposing itself to the gravest peril in its relations with other powers that might take advantage of its embarrassments. The very first axiom in the catechism of British statesmanship is that peace must be kept with the United States. And the reasons which make this self-evident to every British statesman have the same force with the other great powers too. They may sometimes growl at us or try to gain a little diplomatic advantage of us, but every one of them will go to the utmost verge of concession to avoid a serious embroilment with us. The Jingo talk we hear so often about the dangers threatening us, and of the encroachments and insults we may expect at the hands of European powers, is therefore the veriest balderdash. Not one of those powers will venture to invade any rights or to deny any just claims of ours to the extent of risking a warlike conflict with this republic, although we are unarmed. We can have no war with them unless we want war, and drive them into it by making it to them a matter of plain self-respect.

Thus we do not need a big war fleet to preserve the peace or to protect our dignity or our just rights or interests. Those objects are accomplished by our geographical position, by the well-known abundance of our resources, and by the ever-vigilant jealousies of other powers among themselves. There is not the slightest reason for thinking, if we follow a rational and decent policy toward other nations, that in this respect the future will differ from the past. The American people are enjoying the inestimable privilege of being secure without being obliged to burden themselves with costly military and naval establishments. This privilege is the envy of all nations that groan under the load of arms which an abhorred necessity forces upon them. Are we so utterly lost to good sense as wantonly to throw away this priceless privilege, and to take that abominable load upon our backs without any such necessity? That we should have a smart little navy enabling us to do our share of police duty on the seas nobody will deny. In this respect the new navy we have will very nearly meet all reasonable requirements, and its quality in officers, men, and equipment may well be a matter of national solicitude and pride. But are we to spend untold hundreds of millions in building one of the great war fleets of the world, which, as experience shows, will be antiquated almost as soon as finished, without being obliged to do so? Are we to tax our already heavily taxed people for this purpose—not to preserve the peace, for that requires no big fleet—but to bring on a danger of wanton war by exciting a desire to use the costly new armaments before they are superseded by newer ones? It is amazing how eager some otherwise sensible Americans are to strip their country, without any necessity, of one of its proudest and most beneficent distinctions—an exceptional blessing which we cannot be too thankful for—that of enjoying an unarmed peace.

Carl Schurz.



PRESIDENT McKINLEY'S VISIT TO THE TENNESSEE CENTENNIAL AND INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION.—Drawn by W. A. Rogers.
[See "This Busy World," Page 607.]
1. The Daylight Fireworks. 2. The Illumination of the Rialto at Night.

JEROME—A POOR MAN.*

BY MARY E. WILKINS,

AUTHOR OF "PEMBROKE," "JANE FIELD," "MADELON," ETC.

ILLUSTRATED BY A. I. KELLER.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

COLONEL LAMSON'S will divided sixty-five thousand dollars among five legatees—ten thousand was given to John Jennings, five thousand to Eliphalet Means, five thousand to Eben Merritt, twenty thousand to Lucina Merritt, and twenty-five thousand to Jerome Edwards.

Upham was not astonished by the first four bequests; the last almost struck it dumb. "What in creation did he leave twenty-five thousand dollars to that feller for? He wa'n't nothin' to him," Simon Bassett stammered, when he first heard the news, on Tuesday night, in Robinson's store. His face was pale and gaping, and folk stared at him.

Suddenly a man cried out: "By gosh! J'rome promised to give the hull on't away! Don't ye remember?"

"That's so," cried another; "an' Doctor Prescott an' Bassett have got to hand out ten thousand apiece if he does. Fork over, Simon."

"Guess ye'll wait till doomsday afore J'rome sticks to his part on't," said Bassett, with a sneer; but his lips were white.

"No, I won't; no, I won't," responded the man, hilariously. "Jerome's goin' to do it; Jake here says he heard so; it come real straight." He winked at the others, who closed around, grinning maliciously.

Bassett broke through them with an oath, and made for the door. "It's a damned lie, I tell ye!" he shouted, hoarsely; "an' if J'rome's sech a G—— d—— fool, I'll see ye all to h——, and him too, afore I pay a dollar on't."

When the door had slammed behind him, the men looked at one another curiously. "You don't s'pose J'rome will do it," one said, meditatively.

"He'll do it when the river runs up hill an' crows are white," answered another, with a hard laugh.

"I dun'no'," said another, doubtfully. "J'rome Edwards 's always been next-door neighbor to a fool, an' there's no countin' on what a fool 'll do!"

"S'pose you'd calculate on comin' in for some of the fool's money if he should give it up," remarked a dry and unexpected voice at his elbow.

The man looked around and saw Ozias Lamb. "Ye don't think he'll do it, do ye?" he cried, eagerly.

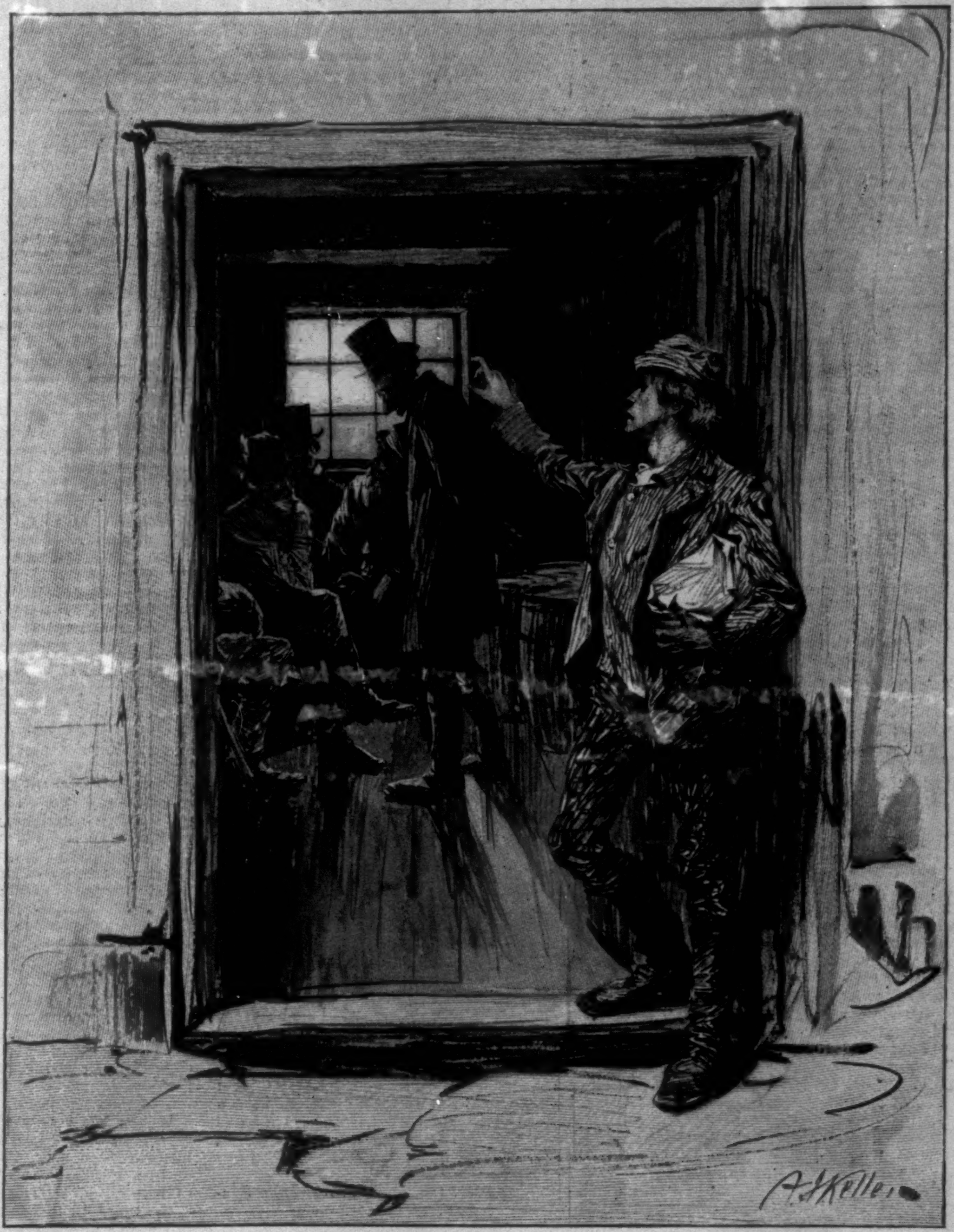
"'Ain't got nothin' to say," replied Ozias. "I s'pose when a fool does part with his money, there's always wise men 'nough to take it."

John Upham, who, with some meagre little purchases in hand, had been listening to the discussion, started for the door. When he had opened it, he turned and faced them. "I'll tell ye one thing, all of ye," he said, "an' that is, *he'll* do it."

There was a clamor of astonishment. "How d'ye know it? Did he tell ye so?" they shouted.

"Wait an' see," returned John Upham, and went out.

Plodding along his homeward road, a man passed him at a rapid stride. John Upham started. "Hullo, J'rome!" he called, but getting no response, thought he had been mistaken.



"'I'LL TELL YE ONE THING, ALL OF YE,' HE SAID, 'AN' THAT IS, *HE'LL* DO IT.'"

However, the man was Jerome, but the tumult of his soul almost deafened him to voices of the flesh. He was, for the time, out of the plane of purely physical sounds, on one of the spirit, full of unutterable groanings and strivings.

When Jerome had received the news of his legacy, he had felt, for the first time in his whole life, the joy of sudden acquisition and possession. His head reeled with it; he was, in a sense, intoxicated. "Am I rich? *I—I?*" he asked himself. Pleasures hitherto out of his imagination of possession seemed to float within his reach on this golden tide of wealth.

He would have been more than man had not this first grasp of the divining-rod of the pleasures of earth filled him with the lust of them. Even his love for Lucina and his parents and sister seemed for a while subverted by that love for himself, to which the chance of its gratification gave rise. Vanities which he had never known within his nature, and petty emulations, rose thick, like a crop of weeds on a rich soil. He saw himself in broadcloth and fine linen, with a great festoon of gold chain on his breast and a gold watch in pocket, walking with haughty flourishes of a cane, or riding in his own carriage. He saw himself in a new house, grander than Doctor Prescott's; he saw his parlor more richly furnished; *his* wife, *his* mother and sister, more finely attired than any women in the village; *his* father throned like a king in the late sunshine of life. Jerome had usually sound financial judgment and conservative estimate of the value of money, but now he thought of twenty-five thousand dollars as almost unlimited wealth.

That night, after he had the news from Lawyer Means, he could not sleep until nearly morning. He lay awake, spending, mentally, principal and interest of his little fortune over and over, and spending, besides that, much of the singleness and unselfishness of his own heart.

However, after an hour or two of sleep, which seemed to turn, as sleep sometimes will, the erratic currents of his mind back into the old channels, from which it had been forced by this earthquake stress of life, he experienced a complete revulsion.

He remembered—what he had either forgotten or ignored—the scene in the store, his vow, the drawing up of the document which registered it. He awoke into this memory as into a chilling atmosphere, and went down stairs with a grave face. He met his mother's and sister's almost hysterical delight, which had not abated overnight, his father's childlike wonder and admiration, soberly; as soon as he could, he got away to his work, which was still in the wood where his mill had stood. Cheeseman had gone home, still Jerome was not alone much of the time. People came to congratulate him, also out of curiosity. The little village was wild over the legacy and the document concerning its division among the poor.

There were two distinct factions, one upholding the belief that Jerome would remain true to his promise, the other full of scoffing and scorn at the insanity of it. Both factions invaded Jerome, and, while neither broached the matter directly, strove by indirect and sly methods to ascertain his mind.

"S'pose ye'll quit work now, J'rome; s'prised to see ye here this mornin'," said one.

"When ye goin' to run for Congress, J'rome?" asked another.

Still another inquired, meaningly, with a sly wink at his comrades, how much money he was going to allow for home missions; and another, when he was going to Boston to buy his gold watch and chain. Until he went home at night he was haunted by the doubtful attention of the idle portion, just now large, of the village population.

It was too early for planting, and quite recently the supply of work from the Dale shoe-dealer had been scanty. People were at a loss to account for it, as the business had increased during the last two years, and many Upham men had been employed. Lately there had been a rumor as to the cause, but few had given it credence.

This afternoon, however, it was confirmed. Just before dark, a man, breathless, as if he had been running, joined the knot of loafers. "Well," he said, panting, "I've found out why the shoes have been so scarce."

The others stared at him inquiringly.

"That—durned varmint over to Dale, he's bought the old meetin'-house, an'—sent down to Boston fer—some machines, an'—he's goin' to have a factory. There's no more hand-work to be done; that's the reason he's been holdin' it back."

"How'd ye find it out? Who told ye?" asked one and another, scowling.

"Saw 'em with my own eyes unloadin' of the new machines at the railroad, an' saw the gang of men he's got to work 'em hangin' round his store. It's the railroad that's done it. It's made freight to Boston cheap enough so's he can make it pay. Robinson's goin' to give up shoes here. I had it straight. He don't want to compete with machine-work, and he don't want to put in machines himself. It was an unlucky day for Upham when that railroad went through Dale."

"Curse the railroad, an' curse all the new ideas that take the bread out of poor men's mouths to give it to the rich!" said a bitter voice, and there was a hoarse amen from the crowd.

"I'd give ten years of my life if I could raise enough money, or if a few of us together could raise enough money, to start a factory in Upham," cried a man, fiercely. "Then we'd see whether it was brains as good as other men's that were lacking."

The man, who had not been there long, was quite young, not much older than Jerome, and had a keen, thin face, with nervous red spots coming and going in his cheeks, and fiery, deep-set eyes. He had the reputation of being very smart and energetic, and having considerable self-taught book-knowledge. He had a wife and two babies, and was, if the truth were told, staying away from home that day that his wife, who was a delicate, anxious young thing, might think he was at work. He had eaten nothing since morning.

"We shouldn't be no better off if you put machines in your factory," said a squat man, with a surly overhanging brow and a dull weight of jaw.

"I guess we who are not too old to learn could run machines as well as anybody, if we tried," returned the young man, scornfully. "And as for the rest, hand-work is always going to have a market value, and there'll always be some sort of a demand for it. It would go hard if we couldn't give those that couldn't run machines something to do, if we had the factory; but we haven't, and, what's more, we sha'n't have." As he spoke, he went over to Jerome, who was prying up a heavy log, and lifted with him.

"Do you think you could form a company, if you had enough money between you?" Jerome asked him.

"Yes, of course. We'd be fools if we didn't," he said.

"I say curse the railroads and the machines! I wish every railroad track in the country was tore up. I wish every train of cars was kindlin'-wood, an' all the engine wheels an' the machine wheels would lock till the crack of doom," shouted the bitter voice again.

"There's no use in damning progress because we happen to be in the way of it. I'd rather be run over than lock the wheels myself," Jerome said, suddenly.

"It remains to be seen whether ye would or not," the voice returned, with sarcastic meaning. There was a smothered chuckle from the crowd, which began to disperse. The shadows were getting thick in the wood.

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* Begun in HARPER'S WEEKLY No. 2089.

After supper that night Jerome went up to his room, and sat down at his window. His curtain was pulled high. He looked out into the darkness and tried to think, but directly a door slammed, and a shrill babble of feminine tongues began in the room below. Belinda Lamb had arrived.

Jerome got his hat, stole softly down stairs and out of the front door. "I've got to be alone somewhere where I can think," he said to himself, and forthwith made for the site of his mill. He could be sure of solitude there at that hour.

When he arrived he sat down on a pile of logs and gazed unseeingly at the broad current of the brook, silvering out of the shadows to the light of a young moon. The roar of it was loud in his ears, but he did not seem to hear it. There are times when the spirit of the living so intensifies that it comes into a silence and darkness of nature like death.

Jerome, in the solitude of the woods, without another human soul near, could concentrate his own into full action. As he sat there he began to defend his own case like a lawyer against a mighty opponent, whom he recognized from the dogmas of orthodoxy, and also from an insight inherited from generations of Calvinistic ancestors, as his own conscience.

Jerome presented his case tersely; the arguments were all clearly determined beforehand. "This twenty-five thousand dollars," he said, "will lift me and mine out of grinding poverty. If I give it up, my father and mother and sister will have none of it. Father has come home unfit for any further struggles; mother has aged during the last few days. She was nerved up to bear trouble; the shock of joy has taken her last strength. She can do little now. This money will make them happy and comfortable through their last days. If I give up this money they may come to want. I have lost my work in Dale like the rest; I may not be able to get a living even; we may all suffer. This money will give my sister a marriage portion, and possibly influence Doctor Prescott to favor his son's choice. If that does not, my failure to carry out my part of the agreement, and the doctor's consequent release from his, may influence him to make no further opposition. If I give the money, and so force the doctor to give his, or put him to shame for refusing, Elmira can never marry Lawrence. I can give more to Uncle Ozias than he would receive as his share of a common division. I can send Henry Judd to Boston to have his eyes cured. And—I can marry Lucina Merritt. She loves me—she is waiting for me. I have not answered her letter. She is wondering now why I do not come. If I give up the money I can never marry her—I can never come."

Then the great still voice, which was, to his conception, within him, yet without, through all nature, had its turn, and Jerome listened.

Then he answered, fiercely, as to spoken arguments: "I know the whole is greater than a part; I know that to make a whole village prosperous and happy is more than the welfare of three or four, but the three and the four come first, and that which I would have for myself is divine and of God, and I cannot be what I would be without it, for no man who hungers gets his full strength. If I give this, it is all. I can make no more of my life."

He looked as if he listened again for a moment, and then stood up. "Well," he said, "it is true, if a man gives his all he can do no more, and no more can be asked of him. What I have said I will do, I will do, and I will save neither myself nor mine by a lie which I must lie to—my own soul!"

Jerome went down the path to the road, but stopped suddenly, as if he had got a blow. "Oh, my God!" he cried, "Lucina!" All at once a consideration had struck him which had never fully done so before. All at once he grasped the possibility that Lucina might suffer from his sacrifice as much as he. "I can bear it—myself," he groaned, "but Lucina, Lucina; suppose—it should kill her—suppose it should—break her heart? I am stronger to suffer than she. If I could bear hers and mine—if I could bear it all! Oh, Lucina, I cannot hurt *you*—I cannot, I cannot! It is too much to ask. God, I *cannot!*"

Jerome stood still, in an involuntary attitude of defiance. His arm was raised, his fist clinched, as if for a blow; his face uplifted with stern reprisal; then his arm dropped, his tense muscles relaxed. "I could not marry her if I did not give it up," he said. "I should not be worthy of her. There is no other way."

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

Jerome went to Lawyer Means's that night. Means himself answered his knock, and Jerome opened abruptly upon the subject in his mind. "I want to give away that money, as I said I would," he declared.

The lawyer peered above a flaring candle into the darkness. "Oh, it is you, is it? Come in."

"No, I can't come in. It isn't necessary. I have nothing to say but that. I want to give away the money, according to that paper you drew up, and I want you to arrange it."

"You've made up your mind to keep that fool promise, have you?"

"Yes, sir."

"Look here, young man, have you thought this over?"

"Yes, sir."

"You know what you're going to lose. You remember that your own family—your father and mother and sister—can't profit by the gift?"

"Yes, sir; I have thought it all over."

"Do you realize that if you stick to your part of the bargain, it does not follow that the doctor and Basset will stick to theirs?"

Jerome stared at him. "Didn't they sign that document before witnesses?"

The lawyer laughed. "That document isn't worth the paper it's written on. It was all horse-play. Didn't you know that, Jerome?"

"Did the doctor and Bassett know it?"

"The doctor did. He wouldn't have signed, otherwise. As for Bassett—well, I don't know, but if he comes and asks me, as he will before he unties his purse strings, I shall tell him the truth about it, as I'm bound to, and not a dollar will he part with after he finds out that he hasn't got to. You can judge for yourself whether Doctor Seth Prescott is likely to fling away a fourth of his property in any such fool fashion as this."

"Well, I don't know that it makes any difference to me whether they give or not," said Jerome, proudly.

"Do you mean that you will abide by your part of the agreement if the others do not abide by theirs?"

"I mean that I keep my promise when I can; and if every other man under God's footstool breaks his, it is no reason why I should break mine."

"That sounds very fine," said the lawyer, dryly; "but do you realize, my young friend, how far your large fortune alone would go when divided among the poor of this village?"

"Yes, sir; I have reckoned it up. There are about one hundred who would come under the terms of the agreement. My money alone, divided among them, would give about two hundred and fifty dollars apiece."

"That is a large sum."

"It is large to a man who has never seen fifty dollars at once in his hand, and it is large when several unite and form a company for a new factory, with machines."

"Do you think they will do that?"

"Yes, sir. Henry Eames will set it going; give him a chance."

"Why don't you, instead of parting with your money, set up the factory yourself, and employ the whole village?"

"That is not what I said I would do, and it is better for the village to employ itself. I might fail, or my factory might go, as my mill has."

"How long do you suppose it will be that every man will have his two hundred and fifty dollars after you have given it to him? Tell me that, if you can."

"That isn't my lookout."

"Why isn't it your lookout? A careless giver is as bad as a thief, sir."

"I am not a careless giver," replied Jerome, stoutly. "I can't tell, and no man can tell, how long they will keep what I give them, or how long it will be before the stingiest and wisest get their shares away from the weak; but that is no more reason why I should not give this money than it is a reason why the Lord Almighty should not furnish us all with fingers and toes, and our five senses, and our stomachs."

"You might add, our immortal souls, which the parsons say we'll get snatched away from us if we don't watch out," said Means, with a short laugh. "Well, Jerome, it is too late for me to attend to this business to-night. I am worn out, too, by what I have been through lately. Come to-morrow, and, if you are of the same mind, we'll fix it up."

Somewhat to Jerome's surprise, the lawyer extended a lean brown hand for his, which he shook warmly, with a hearty "Good-night, sir."

"I don't believe he was trying to hinder me from giving it, after all," Jerome thought, as he went down the hill.

Eliphalet Means, shuffling in loose slippers, returned to his sitting-room, where were John Jennings and Eben Merritt. There were no cards, and no punch, and no conviviality for the three bereaved friends that night. The three sat before the fire, and each smoked a melancholy pipe, and each, when he looked at or spoke to the others, looked and spoke, whatever his words might be, to the memory of their dead comrade.

The chair in which the Colonel had been used to sit stood a little aloof, at a corner of the fireplace. Often one of the trio would eye it with furtive mournfulness, looking away again directly without a glance at the others.

When Means entered he was smiling, for the first time that evening. "Well," he said, "I have seen something to-night that I have never seen before, that I shall never see again, and that no man in this town has ever seen before, or will see again, unless he lives till the millennium."

The others stared at him. "What d'ye mean?" asked the Squire.

"I have seen something rarer than a white blackbird, and harder to discover than the north pole. I have seen a poor man, clothed and in his right mind, give away every dollar of a fortune within three days after he got it."

The two men looked at him, speechless. "He hasn't!" gasped the Squire, finally.

"He has."

"By the Lord Harry!"

"Well," said John Jennings, slowly, "if I had started out on a search for such a man I should have wanted more than Diogenes's lantern."

"And I should have called for blue lights and rockets, the aurora borealis, chain lightning, the solar system, and the eternal light of nature; but I discovered him with a penny dip," said Eliphalet Means, chuckling. He stood on the hearth before his two friends, his back to the fire; it was a cool night, and he had got chilled at the open door.

"He is going to give away the whole of it?" John Jennings said, with wondering rumination.

"Every dollar."

Means looked at them, all the shrewd humor faded out of his face. "I've got something to tell both of you," he said, gravely; "and, Eben, while I think of it, I have a letter that *he* wanted given to your daughter. Remind me to hand it over to you to take to her when you go home to-night. I've got something to tell you; the time has come; *he* said it would. I didn't half believe it, God forgive me! I tell you, I've got a keen scent for the bad in human nature, but he had a keen one for the good. He'd have made a sharp counsel on the right side. After *he* got his money, he used to talk day and night about the poverty of this town. He had a great heart. He—*wanted and intended that twenty-five thousand dollars to go just the way it is going.*" The lawyer, with every word, shook his skinny right hand before the others' faces; he paused a second and looked at them with solemn impressiveness; then he continued: "He wanted to give that twenty-five thousand dollars, in equal parts, to the poor of this town, as indicated in that instrument which I drew up at Robinson's for Prescott and Bassett, but instead of giving it himself he left it to Jerome Edwards to give. He said that it would amount to the same thing, and I tried to argue him out of it. I did not believe any man could stand the temptation of a fortune between his fingers, but *he* said Jerome Edwards could and would, and the money was as sure to go as he intended it to as if he doled it out himself in dollars and cents, and he was right. God bless him! And—*that twenty-five thousand dollars is going just the way he meant it to go.*"

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

THIS·BUSY·WORLD·

Judge Cornell observed with some impatience, the other day, that the prisoners and witnesses in his court would better be described as men and women than as ladies and gentlemen. Of course he was right; but if he hopes to achieve a correct use of "woman" and "lady" in his court he must be an optimist, for he attempts a difficult thing.

"Lady" is an indispensable word, but very generally abused in use. To make it interchangeable without discrimination with "woman" is a clumsy and wasteful use of language. "Woman" is more comprehensive, for every lady is a woman, but not every woman a lady, and "lady" properly used is usefully descriptive. A "woman" is a human female. A lady is a woman who is in possession of certain apparent advantages which all women do not share. Commonly speaking, they are advantages of fortune. A woman who is well dressed and conducts herself with propriety is properly described as a lady. A woman who is poor, and who dresses with more regard to cheapness than to fashion, and does such manual work as scrubbing or laundry-work, is ordinarily not properly described as a lady. If she is a lady it is not apparent, and in common use the word deals merely with appearances. When you say, "I met a lady on the street," you usually mean that you met a woman whose general appearance indicated respectability and some command of "means." When you say, "I met a woman on the street," you do not imply any less respectability, but simply the absence of the external evidences of an advantageous social position. A "lady" is identified for descriptive purposes by her manners and her dress. Generally speaking, a woman who is once a lady is always a lady. Unless she undergoes some calamitous moral degeneration, she is not likely to forget the trick of looking and appearing ladylike. A collapse of fortune may bring her to the condition of a lady in reduced circumstances, but a lady she continues to be. But there is no corresponding fidelity of "women" to their station in life. Any woman may blossom out as a lady whenever her fortune or her accomplishments warrant it, and if she is intelligent enough to act the part, it is always hers for the taking.

But, after all, the American propensity to speak of every woman as a lady, however inaccurate it is, is amiable, and has its good side. There ought to be in every woman the raw material out of which a lady may be made, and, really, the faculty for seeing the lady in every woman is nearly akin to the capacity for seeing God's image in every human creature. If we fail to discriminate accurately between ladies and women in our talk, may it not be said for us Americans that we use almost as little discrimination in our manners, with the result that in the distribution of such courtesy as we practise the lady and the laundress share pretty much alike?

There seems no room for doubt that Mr. McKim has done well to take back the bronze Bacchante that he gave to the Boston Public Library. It was probably not his intention to equip the court of the Library with a nucleus of perpetual discord, and as Boston has not been able to agree as to the fitness of the statue for the place, it is far better that the court should either go empty or be adorned by some work of art of which all reasonable Bostonians shall approve. The opposition to the Bacchante was too intelligent and too respectable to be ignored even by persons who had no sympathy with it. A great many Bostonians liked the bronze hussy, and have grieved over her departure, but their regrets will apparently be offset by an immense volume of relief from other quarters. The whole incident has been both amusing and instructive. It has not in any way impaired the value of Mr. Macmonnies's work, and the news that Mr. McKim has presented his treasure to the Metropolitan Museum has been received with very great satisfaction in New York. For a long time to come it will be the most noticed, and doubtless the most popular, of all the Museum's properties. There are few works of art in the country that possess so stirring a history as the Bacchante, or can add to their intrinsic attractions associations of such exceptional liveliness.

Boston has a new sorrow now. Relieved of the embarrassing Bacchante, and in the midst of her pride in the Shaw monument, she is suddenly disordered by the rumor that the inscription on the new monument contains a line of bad Latin. "*Omnia relinquit servare rempublicam*" is the line that makes the Boston scholars blush. *Servare* is the troublesome word. They tell us that the use of the infinitive is an error, and it is also suggested that the wrong verb has been used, and that if the inscription is to apply to Colonel Shaw, *servio*, not *servo*, should be the verb. *Servo* means to save; *servio*, to serve. Shaw served his country, but it cannot be said that he saved it. This latter criticism may be somewhat strained, but there seems to be no doubt that the inscription in its present form causes some conscientious Latinists real distress. It was borrowed, it seems, from the seal of the Society of the Cincinnati, but borrowed, apparently, in a corrupted form.

The Southern editors are duly scandalized, as all law-abiding citizens should be, at the deplorable lynching incident at Urbana, Ohio; but most of them, while they condemn the crime, find occasion to point out that human nature is about the same in one State as in another, and that illegalities which have been common in Southern States might, under similar provocation, be just as common in States lying farther north.

No one concerned in the Urbana disaster seems to have come out of it with any sort of credit. The mob killed the negro, but any satisfaction they might feel in that must be offset by the knowledge that their turbulence cost several comparatively innocent citizens their lives. The captain of militia who ordered his company to fire at the mob is, at this writing, still profoundly dismayed at the results of his own efforts to support the law, and is afraid to go home; the sheriff is in retirement too, and very low in spirits; Governor Bushnell is mortified; Adjutant-General Axline is disgusted; the Mayor of Urbana is still uncertain what will happen next, and many members of the militia company that did the shooting are keeping away from home for fear of their neighbors.

The predicament of Captain Leonard of the militia company, and of his men, seems entirely undeserved. He and his company simply tried to do their duty—a very disagreeable duty at that. Whether the captain's judgment was at fault or not, the State of Ohio will have to back him and his men if it hopes to maintain the efficiency of its quota of the National Guard. To have militiamen driven from home for acts done under orders in defence of law won't do, as perhaps the Urbana people themselves will understand when they cool down and get their bearings again.

A feature of the Tennessee Centennial Fair which excites great interest and universal attention is the Japanese daylight fireworks, which are set off in the afternoon on the shore of Lake Watauga. Mr. Rogers's picture on another page of this number of the WEEKLY gives an idea of what they are like. As the expectant crowd stands watching there comes a boom, and a dark sphere about as big as a six-pound cannon-ball mounts straight up in the air about three hundred feet, and as it curves, explodes, releasing another body, which mounts still higher, and quickly expands into the shape of some queer object—a camel, a deer, a dancing-girl, a priest, a man on an elephant, a flying cock, a hare on a tortoise, a vulture, or one of a score of other shapes—all in brilliant colors. The balloonlike objects hover for some time in the air, rising and sinking, and jostling one another in their wavering poises, until finally their buoyancy gives out, and if they have not been blown away, they fall, and are fallen upon by the children. The figures are of course very big, so that they make a good showing at a high altitude. They are made of tough paper, and ingeniously folded into their shell. Within each one is a fuse, which, lighted by the first explosion, produces gas enough to distend and support the figure to which it is attached. On McKinley Day at the fair there was an illumination, and the show of these fascinating fireworks was especially gay. That display is the special subject of Mr. Rogers's illustration.

Disturbing reports to the contrary notwithstanding, Mark Twain is in rather better health than usual, and is living comfortably and in cheerful spirits in London, where he works diligently and successfully at his trade. He has just finished a book, said to be the narrative of his recent travels in Australia, New Zealand, India, and South Africa, and expects to spend the summer in London, and the fall elsewhere in Europe—perhaps in Austria—busying himself all the time either with lectures or with writing, or both. The report of his illness seems to have grown out of the illness of his cousin, Mr. J. R. Clemens, who was seriously ill for a time last month in London.

The only practical result of the sitting of the recent International Postal Congress which is likely to come to the average letter-writer's notice is the permission which will presently be given him to send three-quarters of an ounce of letter abroad for five cents, instead of half an ounce as hitherto. That, however, is some gain, and will encourage the use of paper of a reasonable thickness in ordinary foreign correspondence. The international postage-stamp which was so much desired the congress did not see fit to authorize. In spite of the complaint that the allowance for the entertainment of the foreign delegates to the congress was inadequate, means seem to have been found to take them and their families to Chicago and back, so they will not go home without seeing a little something of the country. That the delegates have seen even so much of the country as they have has been due to the efforts of the Post-Office Department, which has exerted itself to induce private individuals and corporations to show the visitors the hospitality for which Congress refused to provide. Railroads have carried the delegates without charge, and private citizens have entertained them in several cities, so that it may be hoped that they will not know how sparing Congress saw fit to be in its expenditures on their account.

It is welcome news that the men who decorated the John Harvard statue in Cambridge with red paint after the first Princeton-Harvard ball match have been found out by a committee of their fellow-students and induced to take their names off the university's books. Practically they have been expelled by their fellow-students. It is not remembered that there was ever a parallel case in Cambridge of discipline administered by a committee of students to one of their own number. The effect of such action ought to be excellent.

The death on June 9, from apoplexy, of Alvan Graham Clark, the famous telescope-maker of Cambridge, follows so close on the news of the accident on May 29 in the Yerkes Observatory, where his latest and biggest lens was lately mounted, as to suggest the possibility of a connection between the two. Certainly the news of the accident in the observatory was very well adapted to give Mr. Clark a shock. The lens, as will be remembered, was carried from Cambridge to Lake Geneva, in Wisconsin, in a parlor car, and carefully packed to avoid all risk of injury from jar in transit. It had been in place but a few days, when the movable floor which is used by the observers collapsed with a crash, and dropped forty-five feet into hopeless ruin. The telescope, which rests on a brick pier, is still there, apparently unharmed, but it will be some months before the floor can be rebuilt, and meanwhile the telescope cannot be used.

The death of Mr. Clark is a serious loss to science and a calamity to astronomers. His father, Alvan Clark, born in 1804, developed a talent for drawing, and was a designer of calico patterns, when, at the instance of his son, George Bassett Clark, he turned his attention to telescopes. He started in 1843 the establishment at Cambridgeport, wherein have since been made a large proportion of the most important telescopes now in use. Alvan Graham Clark, who was born at Fall River in 1832, joined his father's firm about 1852, and since the elder Clark's death, about ten years ago, has carried on the business. He not only inherited his father's skill and patience in shaping and polishing lenses, but was himself an observer of note who is credited with a number of important sidereal discoveries. He received an honorary medal from Russia for the 30-inch refractor which he made for the Imperial Observatory at St. Petersburg, and in 1862 the French Academy of Sciences awarded him the Lalande gold medal for the discovery of the companion to Sirius. To the end of his life he continued to devise improvements for telescopes, and to perfect successive glasses which exceeded their predecessors in size and power.

Rear-Admiral Samuel Phillips Lee, who died at Silver Spring, near Washington, on June 5, was of the same distinguished family of Virginia Lees as General Robert E. Lee, but was not alienated by ties of birth from his fidelity to the Union. He was born in Fairfax County, Virginia, in 1812, and was a grandson of Richard Henry Lee, Revolutionary patriot, President of the Continental Congress of 1784, and first United States Senator from Virginia. He was appointed a midshipman when thirteen years old, and twelve years later, in 1837, got his commission as Lieutenant. He served in the Mexican war, in charge of the brig *Washington*, and was present at the capture of Tabasco. When the civil war broke out he was in command of the *Vandalia*, on his way to the East Indies. He heard the news at Cape Town, and immediately brought his ship home to the support of the Union. His services in the civil war were highly important and distinguished. During the last three years of the war he held important commands, involving heavy responsibilities. He was notably efficient in blockading operations, and devised a system which is still a model in such work. He was credited with the capture or destruction of fifty-four steamers in the course of the war. In 1864 he co-operated with General Thomas in the campaign against Hood, and received the thanks of Congress for his success in keeping open the Cumberland River, by which General Thomas received his supplies. He received his commission as Captain in 1862, as Commodore in 1866, and as Rear-Admiral in 1870. He was retired in 1873.

Admiral Lee got his name from the Phillips family of Massachusetts, founders of the schools at Exeter and Andover, with which his family was connected. After his retirement he turned farmer, and spent much of his time at Silver Spring, the former home of his father-in-law, the late Francis P. Blair. He had decided views on most subjects, and held to them with a tenacity strengthened no doubt by the habit of command formed in the course of his long service aboard ship. In appearance he was very like his cousin, General R. E. Lee.

Mr. Poultney Bigelow thinks that the *Sun* did him injustice in taking him to task, on May 12, for speaking in the WEEKLY in defence of Carl Peters, the African explorer, who was turned out of Germany because of the cruelties he practised in Africa. In a letter to the *Sun*, dated May 24, Mr. Bigelow says he first met Peters when he (Peters) was the guest of the German Emperor at the opening of the Kiel Canal, and had just returned from a visit to the United States, where he had been cordially welcomed. Then he was looked upon as the only German who had accomplished great things for his country in Africa. Now that he has made enemies at home and is in disgrace, it is not the time, Mr. Bigelow thinks, to paint him any blacker than he is. "I hate cruelty," writes Mr. Bigelow, "and I have never defended the alleged crimes of Peters, but I despise the hypocrisy of those Germans who fawned on him when he was strong and insult him freely when he is helpless."

A bit of news that is of much interest, especially to every one who is concerned with the development of the negro race, comes in the form of a report that the French government has bought for the Luxembourg Gallery a large picture, representing "The Raising of Lazarus," painted by Henry O. Tanner, an American negro, born in Philadelphia about thirty-five years ago, and a pupil in the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts. We have grown used to musical talent in negroes, have seen them win signal distinction as orators, and recently have heard one of them highly praised as a poet of true merit, but to most of us the news of this success of Mr. Tanner will be as much a surprise as it is a gratification. To have a picture bought for the Luxembourg is no small honor, and any young painter who wins it ought to have a bright future before him.

An important and continuous member of the Cooper family is the Cooper Institute. Interest in it and solicitude for its welfare and usefulness seem to pass down from generation to generation in the Cooper line along with the other Cooper properties. Miss Julia Cooper, a daughter of Peter Cooper, who died in January, left the Institute $100,000 by her will, on the margin of which she wrote in pencil a memorandum indicating her wish that the legacy should be doubled. Her executor and residuary legatee was her brother, Mr. Edward Cooper, who has paid $200,000 over to the Institute in his sister's name, thus respecting the testator's wish as well as her formally executed will.

The Navy Department having given Lieutenant Peary five years' leave in which to search for the north pole, he will start about July 10 on a preliminary expedition to Whale Sound, on the northwest coast of Greenland, where he will arrange with the Eskimos for furs and provisions, to be ready when he returns a year later. In July, 1898, he will start out to go as far north as possible, taking certainly two years for the trip, and possibly four. His plan for next year is to leave his ship at Whale Sound, push up the coast with a party of Eskimos to latitude 81°, and establish there, on Osborne Fiord, a colony and base of supplies, which shall keep in constant communication with Whale Sound. The site of this colony he expects to reach in September, 1898. After spending several months in collecting supplies, he hopes to make, in March, 1899, a dash for the pole, overland as far as possible, and then across the ice. Mrs. Peary will accompany her husband on his preliminary expedition this summer, but on his final expedition he expects to have only one civilized companion, a surgeon. The expedition next month will start from Boston, and several scientific parties will go along, stopping off at Labrador, Baffin Land, and Greenland, and rejoining the ship on her return.

E. S. MARTIN.

FOREIGN NOTES.

FROM AN AMERICAN POINT OF VIEW.

LONDON, May 26, 1897.

THE disfiguration of London proceeds with a rapidity and efficiency most astonishing. Huge scaffoldings obscure the fronts of nearly all the buildings, parks, and public monuments fronting upon the drawn line of roadway which the Queen is to traverse upon her Jubilee procession. Even churches are not spared; and the visitors to London in these and the next few days will wonder what has become of the many interesting landmarks on Piccadilly, Pall Mall, the Strand, and Fleet Street. The church where Dr. Johnson worshipped looks like a lumber-yard; the Houses of Parliament are barricaded as though against an invasion of wild bulls. The beautiful club-houses along Pall Mall, which suggest the borders of the Grand Canal in Venice, are to-day concealed behind tiers of rough lumber, which will make it exceedingly difficult for the stranger to find his way should he happen to be seeking admission to one of these palaces of pleasure during Jubilee week. So far as an amateur may judge, the structures are very strongly put together, and cannot excite any apprehension on the score of safety.

But how can her Gracious Majesty permit this wholesale uglification of her capital at the very time when it will be most crowded with strangers, all eager to drink in the beauties of the world's metropolis? Surely she must have something to say on this subject, for without her there can be no Diamond Jubilee. To be sure, millions of dollars will be earned by real-estate speculators because of the anticipated demand for seats; but rather than make London so ugly, could it not have been arranged that the procession cover a longer distance or be repeated? As it is, the most interesting public monuments of this city are to-day so defaced by lumber scaffolding that the lover of historic architecture must feel depressed as he sits on the top of an omnibus and moves along for miles between repetitions of monstrous hustings. Consider for a moment such names as Westminster Abbey and the grand Houses of Parliament, with Palace Yard and the statues of England's famous statesmen; then Charing Cross, with the National Gallery—places like these and dozens more worse than concealed by scaffolding erected with no regard to architectural harmony. It is small comfort to reflect that most of this hideous lumber has been shipped from America, and that the wages of carpenters have doubled during these last few days, and that thousands of speculators have earned much money. The fact remains that London is to-day the ugliest city in Christendom at the one time of her existence when every English-speaking country is sending delegates to share in the festivities of Jubilee week.

If it is true, as I hear, that people are already cheerfully paying $25 apiece for a seat on the line of the Queen's Jubilee procession, then it shows that sentiment is not yet dead in our commercial race. For what, after all, is there in this procession to compare with the stupendous events that made of Prussia the leading state of Europe in 1871? Queen Victoria has reigned sixty years, and there was a grand Jubilee procession in 1887 to celebrate the fact that she had then reigned fifty years. It is quite likely she may outlive the Prince of Wales and have another jubilee ten years hence. But what is there in this to justify the vast sacrifices now being made for the mere purpose of seeing her drive through the streets of London? In 1887 there were a number of reigning sovereigns who made the procession memorable. In this year there will be no sovereigns, for private reasons, associated, I am told, with German affairs. But there will be delegations from all over the British Empire. These will consist of soldiers sent at vast expense from India, Australia, Africa, Canada, in order to give Londoners an object-lesson in the varied character of their empire. This will be very pretty, and to a certain degree instructive; but what, after all, do these exotics represent beyond the usual parade of a big circus company? To see fantastically dressed black troops from Borneo or Zululand, and cowboy-looking volunteers from Australia or the Cape, is well enough artistically, but what the soldier wishes to know is how many of these are there and what fighting can they do. Showy uniforms do more harm than good, in that they exercise upon the ignorant spectators an influence prejudicial to military efficiency. In America we have survived that, and our volunteer regiments are reverting to the simplicity of the regular army in matters of dress and equipment, rather than emulating the theatrical uniforms affected by certain local militia companies. If showy uniforms could have saved any country, they would have prevented the French catastrophe of 1870.

POULTNEY BIGELOW.

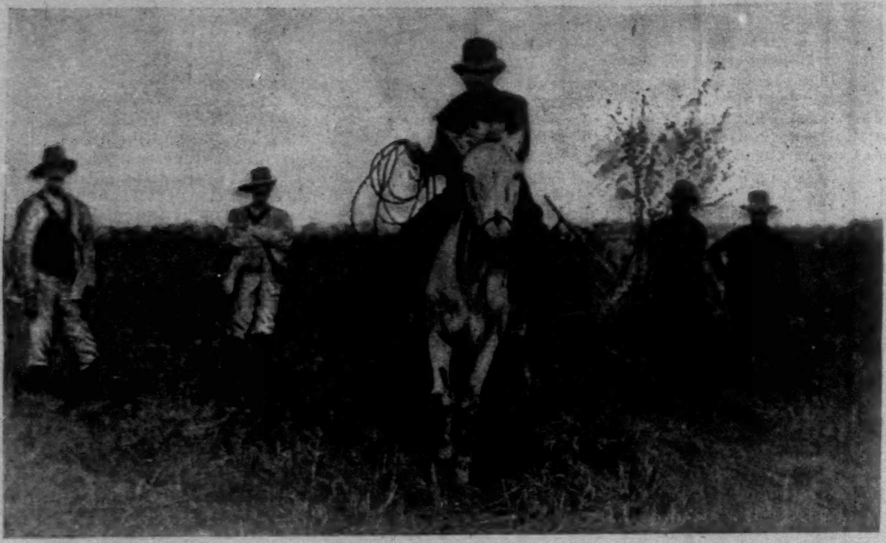
WITH THE CUBAN INSURGENTS.

VI.—FOOD-SUPPLY AND GOVERNMENT WORKSHOPS.

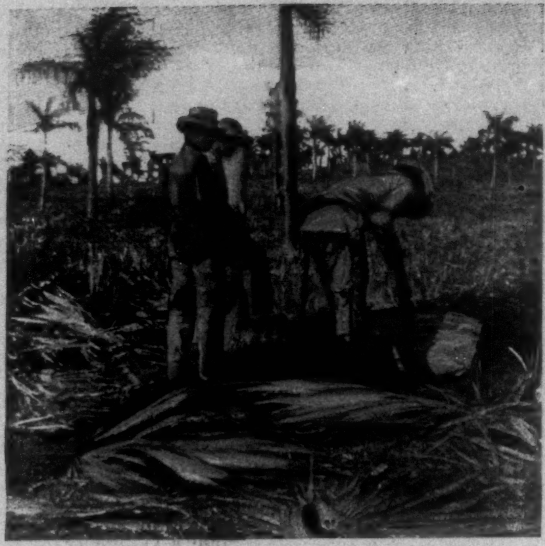
SEEMINGLY the only war measure of Captain-General Weyler has been starvation and extermination. He has found that there were but small chances of his winning Cuba back to Spain by actual fighting, and the only thing left him has been the establishment of a rigorous blockade of the cities and towns to prevent supplies of any kind reaching the insurgents in the field. Following which are operations of marching columns of infantry through the country with the avowed purpose of killing and destroying everything.

As long ago as a year last April, Weyler declared in his official bulletins that he had the insurgents under Maceo penned up in the Pinar del Rio hills, where they were literally starving to death.

How these insurgents were able to exist, their prospects of holding out and obtaining supplies, were questions which presented themselves to me with intense interest. That the Spanish troops were able to march through their country with impunity was an indisputable fact; that they killed all the male inhabitants found in the country, destroyed the crops and cattle and everything which might offer protection or shelter to a human being, was well known to those at all acquainted with Spanish military operations, and I went among the insurgents with the expectation of finding myself obliged to subsist on a very meagre diet. To my surprise, I found at my first stopping-place among the Trinidad Mountains, where the soldiers had been unusually active in destroying the crops

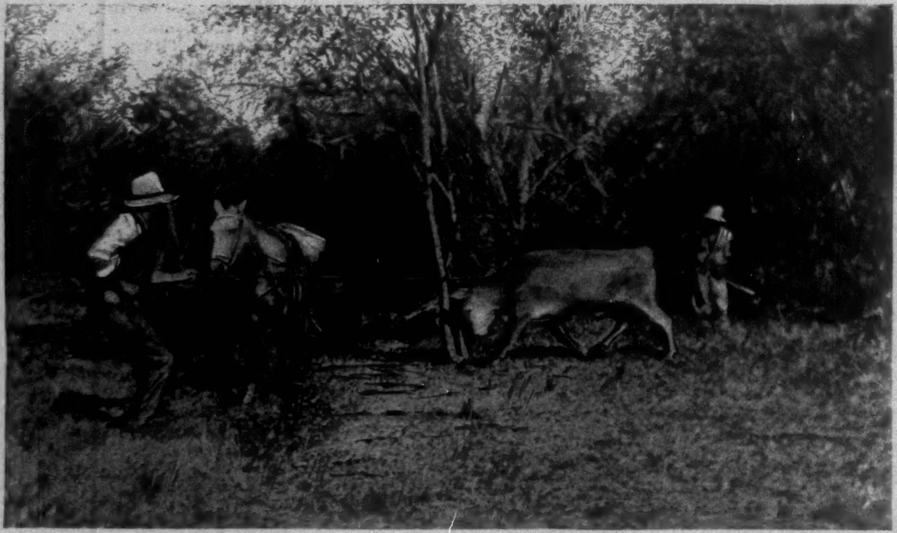


STARTING OUT AFTER CATTLE.



CUTTING OUT THE PITH OF THE COROJO-PALM.

COROJO-PALMS,
Which furnish Man and Beast with Food and Water.



ROPING A STEER TO A TREE.

WITH THE CUBAN INSURGENTS—FOOD-SUPPLIES IN THE FIELD.

From Photographs by Thomas Robinson Dawley, Jr., our Special Correspondent.

planted by the rebel prefectos, that the soldiers themselves while in camp had been living upon the wonderful food product of the royal palm, and the dispersed rebels, sniffing at this diet, were still able to gather yams, malangas, and sweet-potatoes. I looked forward to the time when they too would have to fall back upon the royal palm, but the prefecto, pointing out a brown patch representing a former sweet-potato-field, now literally ploughed up with Spanish machetes, said that, without the necessity of replanting, the sweet-potatoes in that field would be as abundant as ever within three months. As for the food product of the royal palm, the only objection to it on the part of the Cuban is the labor involved in felling the tree to obtain that part of it which is edible.

It is to the exuberant fertility of the soil that the Cuban owes his improvidence, and Weyler's attempt to starve him out may well be compared to a farmer's trying to exterminate the grasshoppers in a meadow by mowing a swath through it. Weyler's army goes through the Cuban field like the mower, cutting down and leaving a swath of destruction behind it, while the Cuban, grasshopperlike, is skipping all about, and rarely falls in the way of the long, crawling, snakelike column which seeks his destruction.

At the beginning of the insurrection the fertile prairies lying to the west of the Jucaro-Moron railway line, the present Trocha, and extending to the cultivated sugar-lands of Santa Clara, were covered with countless heads of cattle, and the mountains extending along the southern part of that province produced horses in such abundance that I have heard it said in Trinidad that even the beggars rode horseback. And this stock was all raised since the end of the last war, which terminated in 1878.

In Havana and Matanzas provinces capital was devoted to the cultivation of sugar-cane, and consequently there never have been the extensive cattle-ranches there, whereas, on the other hand, the small farmer cultivating a potato-patch and raising a few pigs was more numerous than in any other part of the island. Consequently, the concentration of the pacificos, or non-combatants, has been more keenly felt there than in the other provinces, and the destruction of insurgent supplies, especially that of cattle, has been the more easily accomplished. But in the Sancti Spiritus district there are still great numbers of horned cattle, in spite of the fact that this has been the centre of operations for several months past, and the Spaniards have done little else than march back and forth on the principal highways, destroying only that which they saw.

There is not the slightest doubt that the extermination of these cattle is not far off, and when the present war is ended cattle will be as scarce in the island as it was at the termination of the last. The Cuban makes no attempt to economize—in fact, he possesses no such word in his vocabulary. In the field he catches the beef nearest at hand, whether it be a steer or a cow with calf, ropes it to a convenient tree, and then butchers it. He cuts what he may consider the most savory steaks from its flanks, and such nutritious parts as the shanks, hoofs, tail, and head are left lying on the ground or, piled in a heap, are burned.

To the insurgent, beef is his most important food, and when it is gone it will be a hardship for him to get along without it; but he cannot starve, nor will he be reduced to the necessity of becoming strictly a vegetarian, for there abounds in the Cuban *manigua* an animal of the raccoon or rat family known as the jutia. This animal is very abundant, and its capture not at all difficult; it is palatable, and the possibility of its extermination is out of the question.

The representatives of the insurrection, or Cuban government, as it is usually termed, have succeeded in carrying out two very remarkable schemes in this war-devastated island. They are the system of prefecturas and the talleres, or government workshops. The prefecturas are certain jurisdictions presided over by a prefecto, something after the French system of police magistrates, whose name they bear. Their duties are chiefly to keep track of all the non-combatants residing within their jurisdiction, and to see that they do their share of work, such as the planting and harvesting of crops. They attend to the killing of cattle and the division of its meat among the employed, and they are supposed to supply the insurgent forces with the products of their labor. The scheme has not only been carried out to a remarkable extent—I have found these prefecturas established within three or four miles of a Spanish garrison—but the plan is an excellent one. Every non-combatant found outside the Spanish lines of fortification or within the Cuban field is required to have a pass from a prefecto stating his occupation, and if away from his particular prefectura, his pass must state why. These are often the "important documents" mentioned by the Spaniards in the official reports of engagements which, sifted down to the truth, may consist of the killing of a single unwary potato-planter who has recognized the supremacy of the Cuban government and carries his certificate in the little leather pouch at his side.

The talleres, or workshops, come next in importance to the prefectura system, although they are often part of the prefectura itself. Like the Cuban hospitals, they are generally located in some naturally inaccessible spot, not apt to be discovered by the Spanish forces. The most noted of these are the workshops of *Maiari*, located near the top of a mountain, between Cienfuegos and El Siguanea, where the Cubans claim to have manufactured two bronze cannon. I was unable for lack of time to inspect these workshops, but I did visit those of Pico Blanco.

From the top of a high mountain-peak we descended through the forest by a narrow trail. It seemed as though we never were going to reach the end of it. Once in a while we would obtain glimpses through the trees of a long range of blue mountains in front of us, and finally we came to a clearing and a beautiful valley of tumbling hills and dales beneath. Our path led to a river, and across the river to a ranch containing two women, a man, and several boys, one of them crazy. We were informed that we had arrived at Pico Blanco, but at a bad time, for the Spanish troops were trying to force an entrance into the valley. Neither our informant nor the family of women and children seemed to be at all worried at the prospect of having their home burned. A messenger was sent for the captain of the guard, stationed on a high promontory, from which the enemy could be discerned if successful in forcing the mountain pass.

The captain proved to be an earnest young fellow, who informed me that his guard consisted of four men armed with carbines, and that he had seventy rounds of ammunition all told, and he would not leave his post until that ammunition was spent. I now felt that I had really struck a brave crowd, and when my companion spoke up, saying, "Give me a gun and nine cartridges, and you can count nine losses for the enemy," I also wanted a gun and a chance to help defend that valley. But there were others ready to go to the defence of the mountain pass, and there were no guns for them. Ten men were bravely holding out upon the mountain about half a league distant, and the Spanish column was at the foot of it.

Notwithstanding this impending danger, the captain insisted upon taking me at once to the workshops, in spite of my preference to see the defence of the mountain pass by the ten brave Cubans against two thousand Spanish soldiers.

"The Spaniards will enter the valley," said he, "but not without some loss, and what I regret the most is the destruction of our cattle and horses."

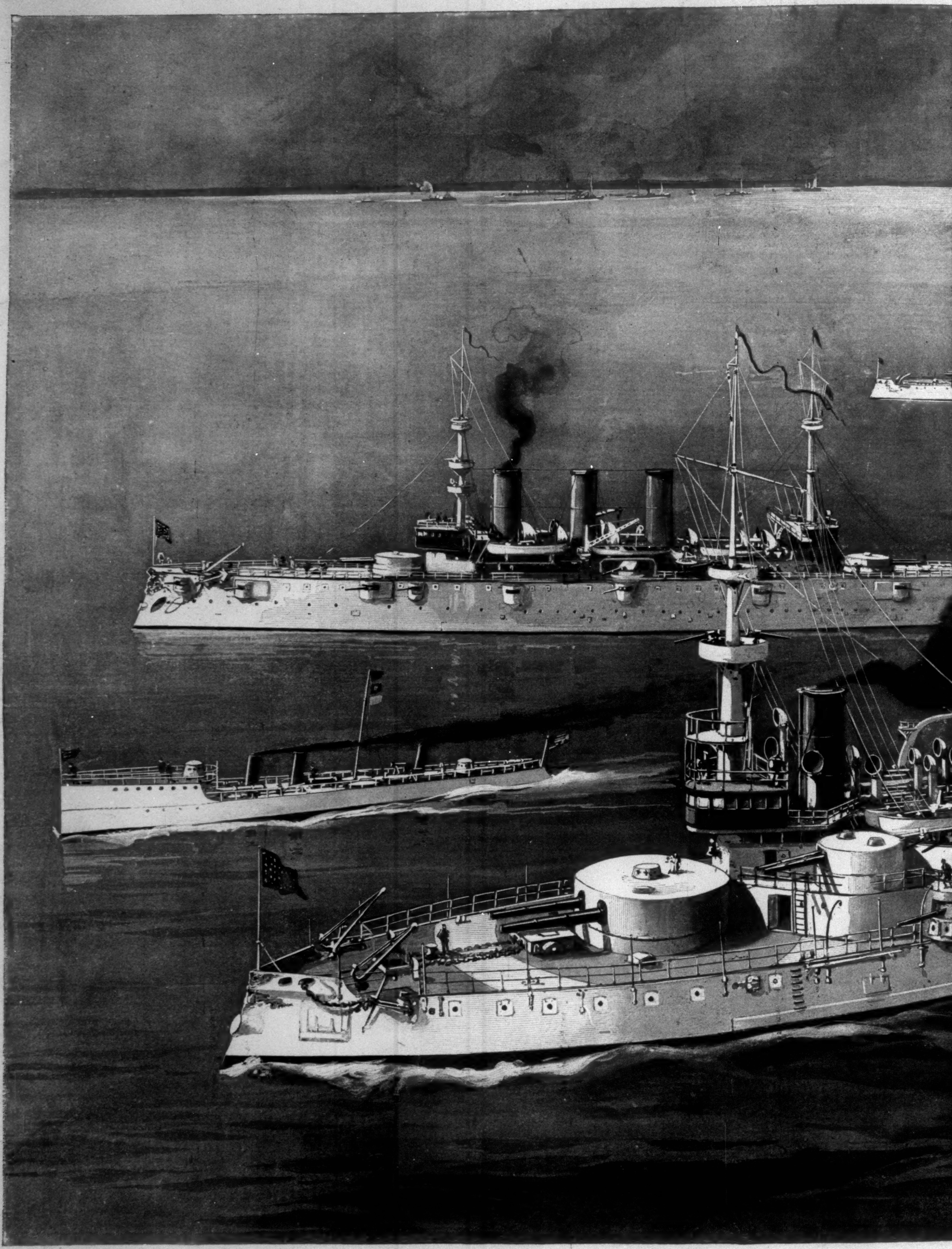
He conducted us along the river, and then by a narrow path through woods to a collection of palm-thatched sheds, where a number of men were busily engaged in carrying away tools, hides, and other materials which they were hiding in the forest. The mayordomo came forward to meet us, and as he wiped his forehead he said,

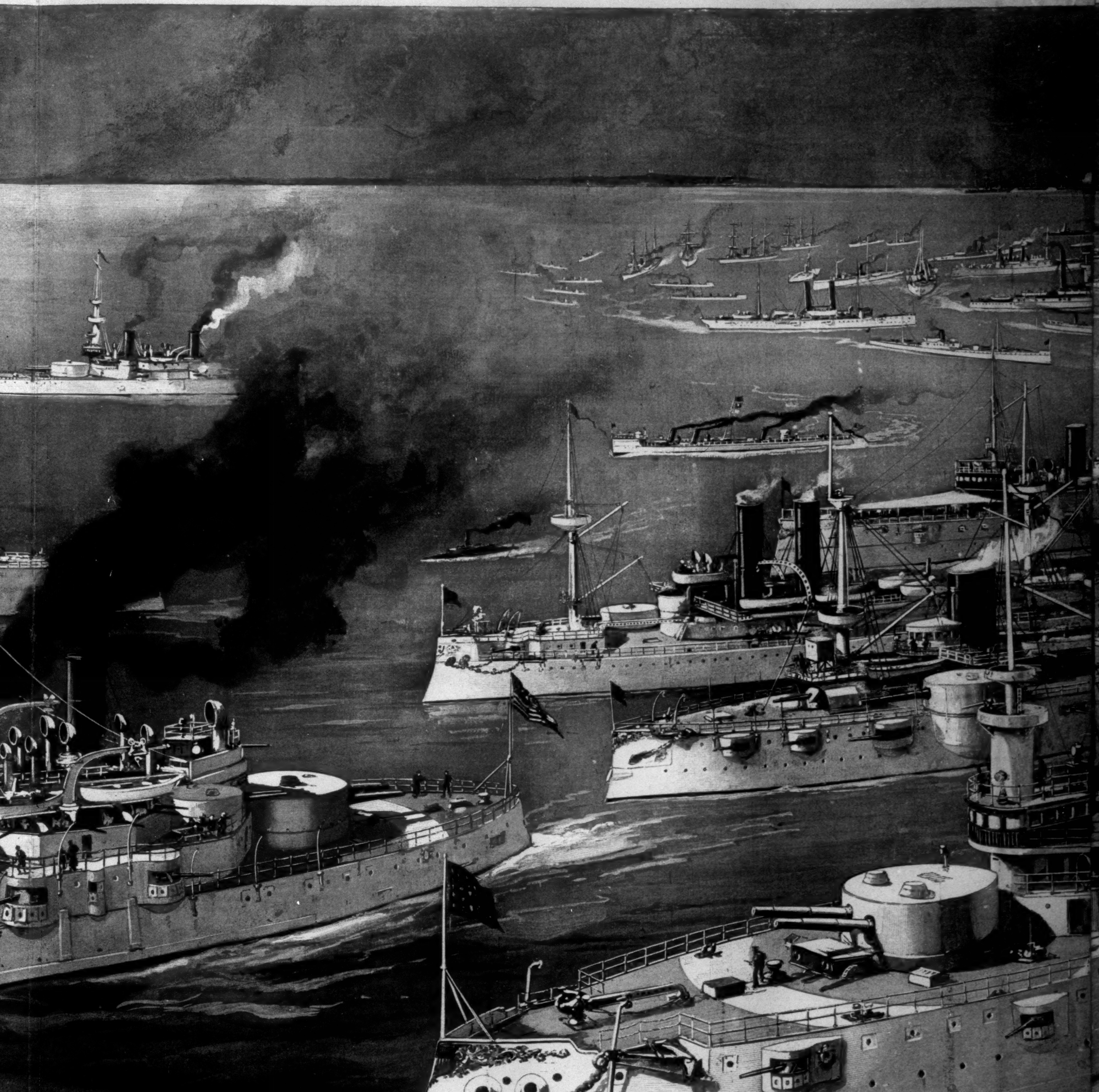
"We have no arms with which to defend ourselves, so we must hide."

The path we had come up was so narrow and crooked that it seemed to me the simplest thing in the world to hide it by felling the trees in it, and this I suggested. Orders were immediately given to act upon my suggestion, and the captain leaving us, I was shown to the workmen's quarters, which reminded me somewhat of a railroad camp. It was already growing dark, and the men began to quit work; all of them, with expressions of joy, gathered around a newly made table to listen to the news I brought from the outside world. They plied me with questions and answered my own, and served me with a dinner in wooden plates of their own manufacture, containing boiled duck, cock, and yucas, and in spite of impending danger everybody was happy.

The workshops of Pico Blanco had been established within the past three months, and contained a corps of fourteen men under the supervision of the mayordomo. They counted among their number a master saddle-maker, a carpenter, and shoemaker, each superintending his own particular industry. There were already in active operation a tannery for the curing of hides and a shoe-shop for supplying the insurgents with shoes.

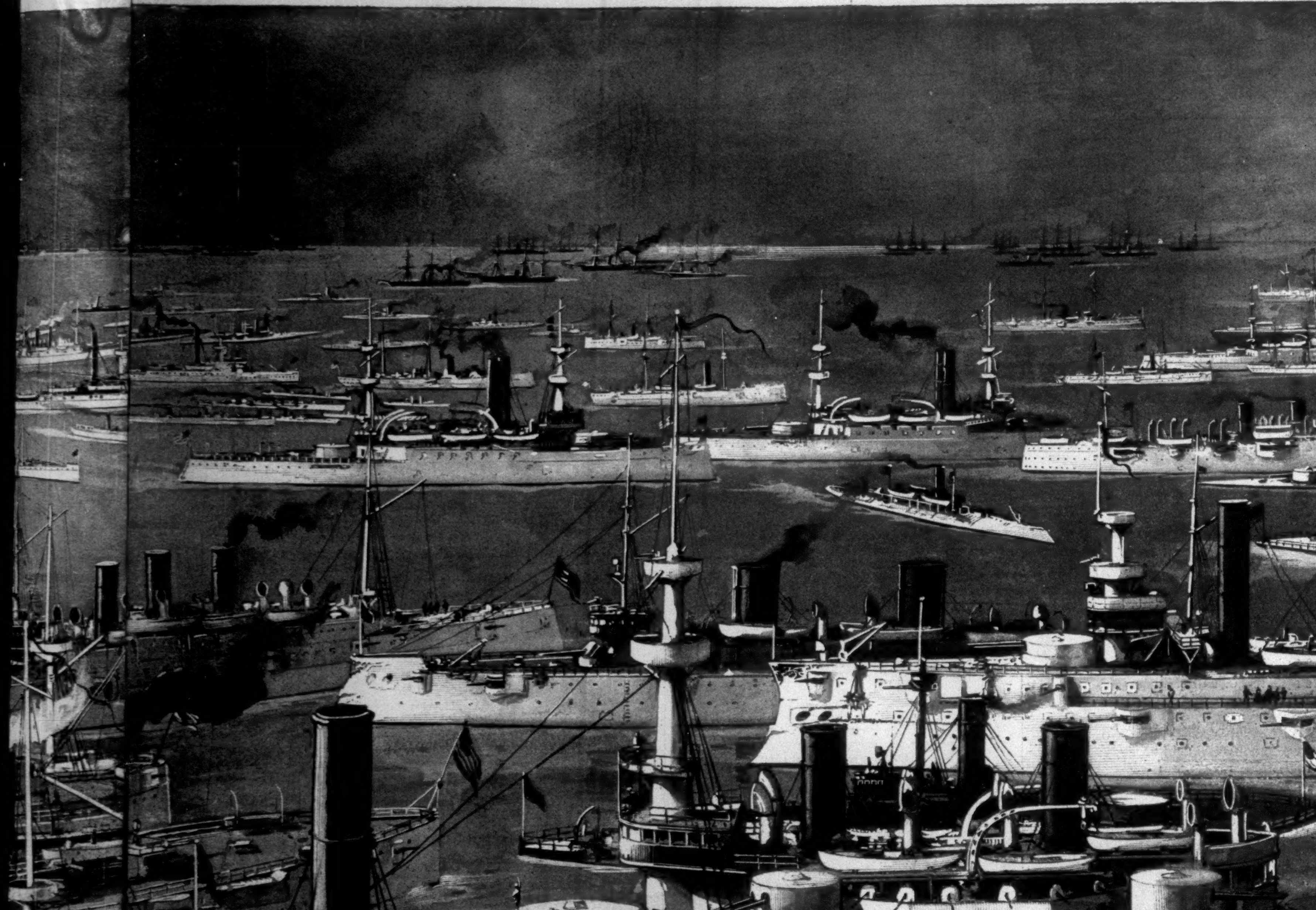
Thomas Robinson Dawley, Jr.





THE NAVY OF TH

Drawn by W. Louis Sonntag, Jr.—Article by Lieutenan



OF TH UNITED STATES.

LIEUTENAN MMANDER J. D. JERROLD KELLEY, U. S. N.—SEE PAGE 617.

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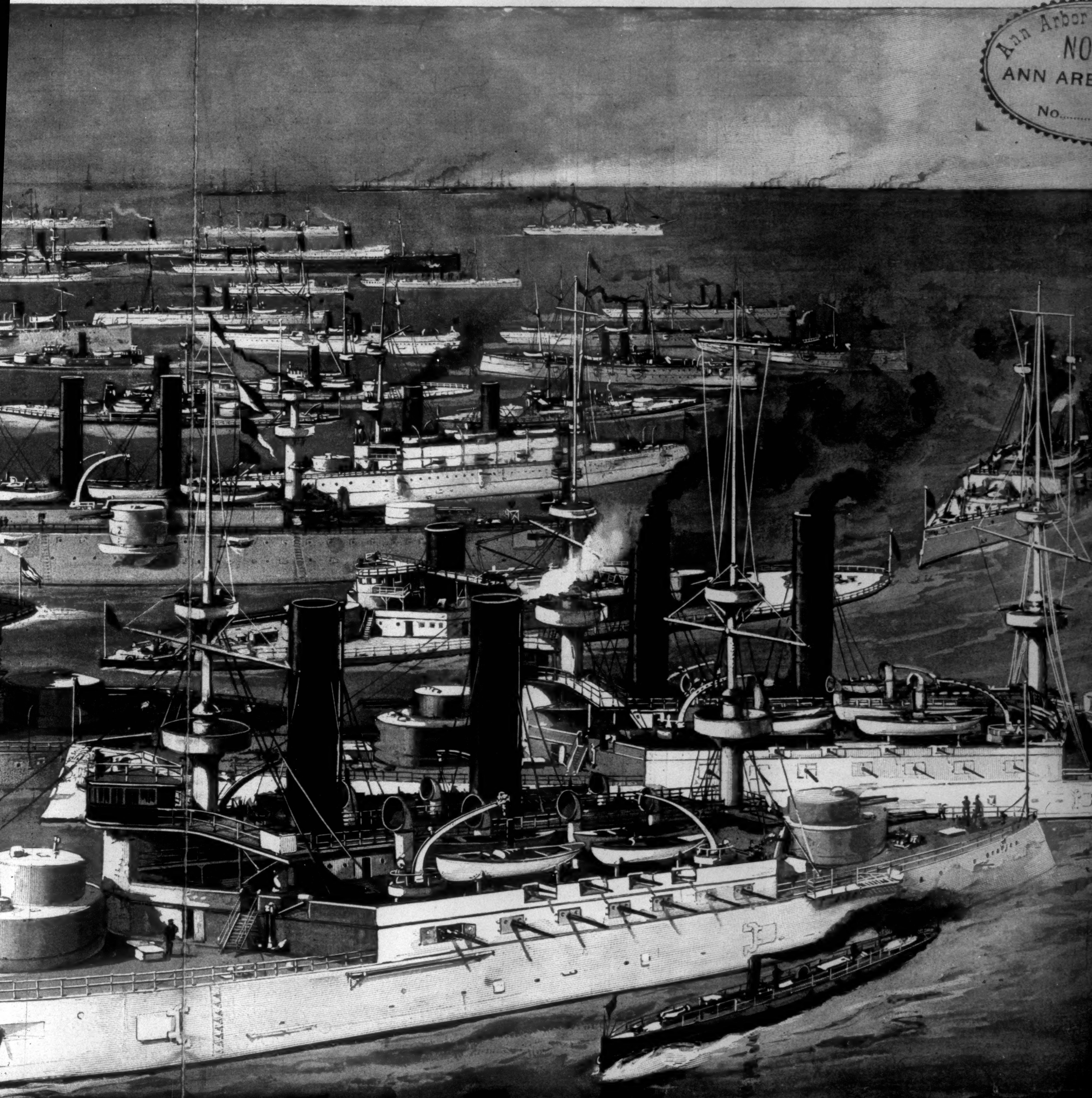
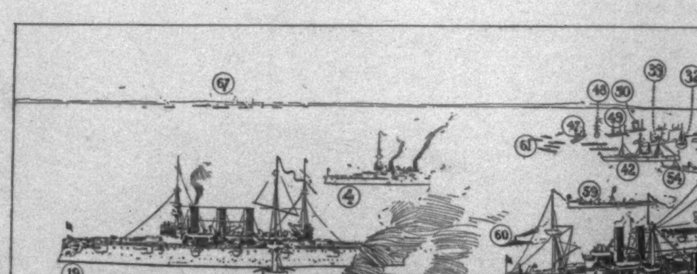


See Key and Explanatory Table on the Back.

No. on Key.	Name.	Length on Load Water-Line.	Beam.	Displacement.	Speed.	Maximum Indicated Horse-Power.	Maximum Draught Aft at Lowest Point of Keel.	Main Battery.
								FIRST
		Ft. In.	Ft. In.	Tons.	Knots.		Ft. In.	
5	Kearsarge	368	72 5	11,525	16	10,000	25 1	4 13-in. B.-L.R., 4 8-in. B.-L.R., 14 5-in.
6	Kentucky	368	72 5	11,525	16	10,000	25 1	“ “ “
7	Alabama	368	72 5	11,525	16	10,000	25	4 13-in. B.-L.R., 14 6-in. R.-F.G.
8	Illinois	368	72 5	11,525	16	10,000	25	“ “
9	Wisconsin	368	72 5	11,525	16	10,000	25	“ “
1	Iowa	360	72 2½	11,410	16	11,000	26 9¾	4 12-in. B.-L.R., 8 8-in. B.-L.R., 6 4-in.
2	Indiana	348	69 3	10,288	15.547	9,738	27 1¾	4 13-in. B.-L.R., 8 8-in. B.-L.R., 4 6-in.
3	Massachusetts	348	69 3	10,288	16.21	10,403	27 1¾	“ “
4	Oregon	348	69 3	10,288	16.79	11,111	27 1¾	“ “
								SECON
10	Texas	301 4	64 1	6,315	18.5	8,000	24 6	2 12-in. B.-L.R., 6 6-in. B.-L.R.
11	Maine	318	57	6,682	17.45	9,293	22 6	4 10-in. B.-L.R., 6 6-in. B.-L.R.
15	Monterey (barbette turret)	256	59	4,084	13.6	5,244	15 4	2 12-in. B.-L.R., 2 10-in. B.-L.R.
12	Puritan (double turret)	289 6	60 1½	6,060	12.4	3,700	18 3	4 12-in. B.-L.R., 6 4-in. R.-F.G.
16	Monadnock “	259 6	55 10	3,990	12	3,000	14 7½	4 10-in. B.-L.R., 2 4-in. R.-F.G.
17	Terror “	259 6	55 10	3,990	10.5	1,600	14 7½	4 10-in. B.-L.R.
14	Amphitrite “	259 6	55 10	3,990	10.5	1,600	14 7½	4 10-in. B.-L.R., 2 4-in. R.-F.G.
13	Miantonomoh “	259 6	55 10	3,990	10.5	1,426	15	4 10-in. B.-L.R.
								AR
18	Brooklyn	400 6	64 8¼	9,271	21.91	18,769	26 2	8 8-in. B.-L.R., 12 5-in. R.-F.G.
19	New York	380 6½	64 10	8,200	21	17,401	26 8	6 8-in. B.-L.R., 12 4-in. R.-F.G.
								PARTIALLY PROTE
20	Olympia	340	53 ⅝	5,870	21.686	17,313	24 9¾	4 8-in. B.-L.R., 10 5-in. R.-F.G.
21	Minneapolis	412	58 2¼	7,375	23.073	20,862	25 7	1 8-in. B.-L.R., 2 6-in. R.-F.G., 8 4-in. R
22	Columbia	412	58 2¼	7,375	22.8	18,509	25 7	“ “ “
23	Chicago	325	48 2	4,500	15.10	5,084	22 6⅛	4 8-in. B.-L.R., 8 6-in. B.-L.R., 2 5-in. B
24	Baltimore	327 6	48 7½	4,413	20.096	10,064	23 11½	4 8-in. B.-L.R., 6 6-in. B.-L.R.
25	Philadelphia	327 6	48 7½	4,324	19.678	8,815	23 5	12 6-in. B.-L.R.
26	San Francisco	310	49 2	4,098	19.525	9,913	22 3½	“ “
27	Newark	310	49 2	4,098	19	8,869	22 7½	“ “
28	Charleston	312 7	46 2	3,730	18.20	6,666	21 8½	2 8-in. B.-L.R., 6 6-in. B.-L.R.
29	Cincinnati	300	42	3,213	19	10,000	20 2½	1 6-in. B.-L.R., 10 5-in. B.-L.R.
30	Raleigh	300	42	3,213	19	10,000	20 2½	“ “
31	Atlanta	271 3	42 1¾	3,000	15.60	4,030	21 ¾	2 8-in. B.-L.R., 6 6-in. B.-L.R.
32	Boston	271 3	42 1¾	3,000	15.60	4,030	21 ⅝	“ “
33	Montgomery	257	37	2,089	19.5	5,580	16 8	9 5-in. R.-F.G.
34	Detroit	257	37	2,089	18.71	5,227	16 8	“ “
35	Marblehead	257	37	2,089	18.44	5,451	16 8	“ “
36	Concord	230	36	1,710	16.8	3,405	16 7	6 6-in. B.-L.R.
37	Yorktown	230	36	1,710	16.14	3,392	16 7	“ “
38	Bennington	230	36	1,710	17.5	3,436	16 7	“ “
39	Dolphin (despatch-boat)	240	32	1,486	15.50	2,253	17 1½	2 4-in. R.-F.G.
40	Helena	259 9	40 1½	1,392	13	1,600	9 9¾	8 4-in. R.-F.G.
41	Wilmington	259 9	40 1½	1,392	13	1,600	9 9¾	“ “
42	Nashville	220	38 8	1,371	14	1,750	12 7½	“ “
43	Castine	204	32 1½	1,177	16.032	2,199	14	“ “
44	Petrel	176 3	31	892	11.79	1,095	13 1	4 6-in. B.-L.R.
45	Bancroft	187 6	32	976	14.37	1,213	13 4	4 4-in. R.-F.G.
46	Machias	204	32 1½	1,177	15.46	2,046	14	8 4-in. R.-F.G.
47	Vicksburg	168	36	1,000	12	800	13 1	6 4-in. R.-F.G.
48	Annapolis	168	36	1,000	12	800	13 1	“ “
49	Newport	168	36	1,000	12	800	13 1	“ “
50	Princeton	168	36	1,000	12	800	13 1	“ “
51	Wheeling	174	34	1,000	12	800	12 11	“ “
52	Marietta	174	34	1,000	12	800	12 7½	“ “
								HAR
53	Katahdin	250 9	43 5	2,155	16.11	5,068	16	....
								TORPEDO-BOATS, TORPEDO
54	Vesuvius	252 4	26 6½	929	21.42	3,794.86	11 2½	3 dynamite guns, 15-inch calibre.
55	Ericsson	149 7	15 6	120	24	1,800	5 6½	3 18-in. Whitehead torpedo-tubes.
56	Cushing	138 9	14 3	105	22.5	1,720	5 6	“ “ “
57	Stiletto (wood)	88 6	11	31	18.22	359	....	None.
58	No. 8	170	17	182	26	3,200	6 6½	3 18-in. Whitehead torpedo-tubes.
59	No. 9	147	16 4½	146.4	30.5	4,200	8	“ “ “
60	Holland Submarine	85 3	11 6	168	8	1,200	....	2 torpedo-tubes.
61	Torpedo-boats and torpedo-boat catchers Nos. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18.							
62	Single-turret Monitors Ajax, Comanche, Canonicus, Catskill, Jason, Lehigh, Mahopac, Manhattan, Montauk, Nahant, Nantucket, Passaic, Wyando							
63	Wood or iron cruisers and gunboats Alert, Michigan, Monocacy, Pinta, Ranger, Adams, Alliance, Enterprise, Essex, Hartford, Lancaster, Marion							
64	St. Louis, } Auxiliary cruisers, American Line.							
65	St. Paul, }							
66	Other vessels of American Line which would be used as auxiliary cruisers.							
67	Transports, tugs, etc.							

EXPLAN



KEY TO THE NA

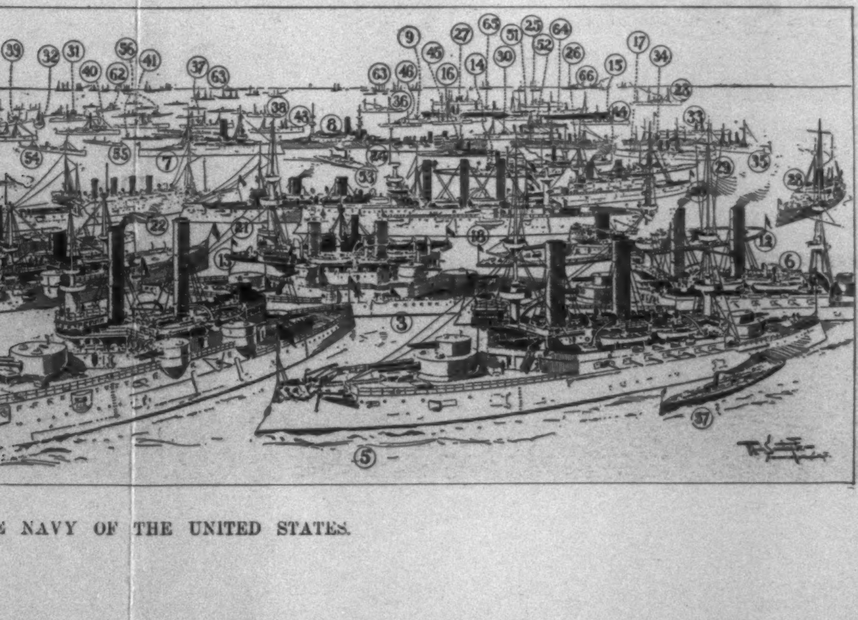
	Secondary Battery.	Torpedo-Tubes.	Type of Engine.
FIRST-CLASS BATTLE-SHIPS.			
4 5-in. R.-F.G.	20 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 6 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 Gatlings, 1 field-gun.	4	Twin screw, vertical triple expansion.
“	“ “ “ “	4	“ “ “
R.-F.G.	16 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 1 Gatling, 1 field-gun.	4	“ “ “
	“ “ “ “	4	“ “ “
	“ “ “ “	4	“ “ “
6 4-in. R.-F.G.	20 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 Gatlings.	4	“ “ “
4 6-in. B.-L.R.	20 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 6 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 Gatlings.	6	“ “ “
“	“ “ “	6	“ “ “
“	“ “ “	6	“ “ “
ECOND-CLASS BATTLE-SHIPS.			
.-L.R.	*12 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 6 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 37-mm. H.R.C., 2 Gatlings.	4	Twin screw, vertical triple expansion.
.-L.R.	7 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 8 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 Gatlings.	4	“ “ “
MONITORS.			
B.-L.R.	6 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 Gatlings.	None.	Twin screw, vertical triple expansion.
.-F.G.	6 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 37-mm. H.R.C., 4 Gatlings.	“	Twin screw, horizontal compound.
.-F.G.	2 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 3-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 37-mm. H.R.C., 2 1-pdr. R.-F.G.	“	Twin screw, horizontal triple expansion.
	2 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 3-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 37-mm. H.R.C., 2 Gatlings.	“	Twin screw, inclined compound.
.-F.G.	2 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 3-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 37-mm. H.R.C., 2 1-pdr. R.-F.G.	“	“ “ “
	2 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 3-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 1-pdr. R.-F.G.	“	“ “ “
ARMORED CRUISERS.			
.-F.G.	12 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 Gatlings.	5	Twin screw, vertical triple expansion.
.-F.G.	8 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 Gatlings.	3	“ “ “
PROTECTED AND PROTECTED CRUISERS.			
.-F.G.	14 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 6 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 Gatlings.	6	Twin screw, vertical triple expansion.
4-in. R.-F.G.	12 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 Gatlings.	4	“ “ “
“	“ “ “	4	“ “ “
5-in. B.-L.R.	9 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 37-mm. H.R.C.	None.	Twin screw, compound overhead beam.
-L.R.	4 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 3-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 37-mm. H.R.C., 2 Gatlings.	4	Twin screw, horizontal triple expansion.
	4 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 3-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 3 37-mm. H.R.C., 4 Gatlings.	4	“ “ “
	“ “ “ “ “	4	“ “ “
	4 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 3-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 37-mm. H.R.C., 4 Gatlings.	6	“ “ “
-L.R.	4 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 3-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 37-mm. H.R.C., 2 Gatlings.	4	Twin screw, horizontal compound.
-L.R.	8 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 Gatlings.	4	Twin screw, vertical triple expansion.
	8 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 Gatlings.	4	“ “ “
-L.R.	2 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 3-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 47-mm. H.R.C., 2 Gatlings.	None.	Single screw, horizontal compound.
	2 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 3-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 47-mm. H.R.C., 2 37-mm. H.R.C., 2 Gatlings.	“	“ “ “
CRUISERS.			
	6 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 Gatlings.	3	Twin screw, vertical triple expansion.
	6 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 1 Gatling.	3	“ “ “
	6 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 Gatlings.	3	“ “ “
GUNBOATS.			
	2 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 3-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 37-mm. H.R.C., 2 Gatlings.	6	Twin screw, horizontal triple expansion.
	2 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 3-pdr. R.-F.G., 1 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 37-mm. H.R.C., 2 Gatlings.	6	“ “ “
	2 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 3-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 37-mm. H.R.C., 2 Gatlings.	6	“ “ “
	2 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 47-mm. H.R.C., 2 Gatlings.	None.	Single screw, vertical compound.
	4 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 4 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 Gatlings.	1	Twin screw, vertical triple expansion.
	“ “ “	1	“ “ “
	4 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 Gatlings.	1	Twin screw, vertical quadruple expansion.
	4 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 1-pdr. R.-F.G.	1	Twin screw, vertical triple expansion.
	2 3-pdr. R.-F.G., 1 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 37-mm. H.R.C., 2 Gatlings.	None.	Single screw, horizontal compound.
	2 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 3-pdr. R.-F.G., 1 1-pdr. R.-F.G., 1 37-mm. H.R.C., 1 Gatling.	2	Twin screw, vertical triple expansion.
	4 6-pdr. R.-F.G., 2 1-pdr. R.-F.G.	1	“ “ “
	“ “ “ “	None.	Single screw, vertical triple expansion.
	“ “ “ “	“	“ “ “
	“ “ “ “	“	“ “ “
	“ “ “ “	“	“ “ “
	“ “ “ “	“	Twin screw, vertical triple expansion.
	“ “ “ “	“	“ “ “
HARBOR-DEFENCE RAM.			
....	4 6-pdr. R.-F.G.	None.	Twin screw, vertical triple expansion.
RPEDO-BOAT CATCHERS, AND SPECIAL TYPES.			
libre.	3 3-pdr. R.-F.G.	None.	Twin screw, vertical triple expansion.
ubes.	3 1-pdr. R.-F.G.		Twin screw, vertical quadruple expansion.
	“ “		“ “ “
	None.		Single screw, vertical.
ubes.	4 1-pdr. R.-F.G.		Twin screw, vertical quadruple expansion.
	“ “		Twin screw, vertical triple expansion.
	None.		{Twin screw, triple expansion; also storage batteries operating single screw.

Wyandotte, and ram Alarm.
, Marion, Mohican, Thetis, Yantic.

Abbreviations.

B.-L.R., Breech-loading Rifle; R.-F.G., Rapid-fire Gun; H.R.C., Hotchkiss Revolving Cannon; pdr., pounder; mm., millimetres.

PLANATION OF KEY.



NAVY OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE AMERICAN FLEET.

BY J. D. JERROLD KELLEY, LIEUTENANT-COMMANDER, U. S. N.

I.

THE first and perhaps the most lasting impression left by the fine illustration accompanying this article is, it seems to me, a pleasurable wonderment that in two lustra our navy could have achieved a force so dignified in number and in character. Here squadrons are set in an illuminating page for the satisfaction of the citizens who have contributed so lavishly to their creation; and here types are pictured for the easement of experts who have asserted their necessity as the determining factors in the protection of our shores.

It is a noble, a heart-warming enumeration of the ships, and, even in its incompleteness, one that promises an insurance against the evils which paper bullets of the brain are, in days of strained diplomacy, often so powerless to avert. More remains to be done, not so much in the extension of types as in their amplification. And this will surely come, for our people are single-minded in a desire to own, not a great fleet such as England, France, and Russia are forced to maintain, but such a compact and highly efficient one as our more happily placed conditions demand. Its importance as the vital element in national defence is at last recognized. Like England, our country is practically an island, for we can be attacked successfully only by water, and by water also must we go to punish trespassers upon our rights, resent insults to our flag, and protect the interests of our citizens abroad. It is true, land defences are needed, but these alone cannot defend the coasts nor prevent those blockades which would seal our ports so effectually that the money lost in a few weeks would be sufficient to support a navy as great as that of England for many years.

II.

The ships of the United States navy are divided, according to their tonnage displacements, into four rates—vessels below one thousand tons are classed as fourth, those between one thousand and three thousand as third, those above three thousand and below five thousand as second, and those of five thousand and over as first rates. For a newly created service, the types are consistent and logical, though they include such variant examples as battle-ships of the first and second classes, armored cruisers, barbette-turret ships, protected and partially protected cruisers, double and single turreted Monitors, cruisers, gunboats, despatch-vessels, and special types like dynamite-gun vessels, torpedo-boat catchers, rams, torpedo-boats, submarine vessels, and tugs. A number of wooden ships—sailing, steam, and sail and steam combined—are borne on the list. Some of these are commissioned for training service and receiving-ship duty, and others—of famous memory—are laid up in Rotten Row, their days of usefulness being over.

Excluding torpedo-boats, the fleet consists of 87 vessels, of which 67 are in service or being prepared for sea, and 20 are under construction. Thirty-three belong to the armored, 54 to the unarmored classes. Eleven of the armored are sea-going battle-ships, and 20 are rated as coast-defence vessels, though 13 of these latter are low-freeboard, single-turreted Monitors, which, save for harbor defence, have little war value. Two armored cruisers, sole representatives of this type, and one ram complete the armored class.

Twenty cruisers and 17 gunboats and torpedo-vessels constitute the unarmored and special classes, and these are supplemented by 19 torpedo-boats, two of which are in service. These raise the total of modern constructions to 106 vessels.

Twenty-two ships, mainly obsolete in type and moderate in dimensions, and 12 tugs possessing battle qualities, give a total of 140 serviceable war-vessels. Seventeen others, of which 10 are rated as unserviceable, swell the total to 157 constructions flying the government pennant. In addition, we own a number of efficient revenue-marine steamers, light-house tenders, and fishery and coast-survey boats. Hence, generalizing broadly and omitting the merchant steamers already enrolled and receiving subsidies as auxiliary cruisers, the country can put afloat at very short notice 200 vessels, 60 per cent. of which would be modern in character.

On the first of January 42 vessels, aggregating 137,589 tons, were in commission; 11,000 enlisted men and apprentices were authorized, and nearly 4000 men were enrolled in the naval militia. In his last report the Secretary declared: "We have many other naval resources—tugs, yachts, and other vessels that could be fitted as torpedo-boats; many that could be adopted and used as gunboats, transports, coal-ships, and repair-ships; and we have thousands of hardy and brave men accustomed to a seafaring life in our fishing fleets, coastwise and lake trades; but we have no law on the statute-book that would enable us to utilize, in case of an emergency, a single one of any class of these vessels, or to call into the service a single sailor for the defence of our country over and above the number allowed to our regular navy, in case of threatened or actual war."

This is an evil. And its correction? Enact the laws required, establish the permanent force at a minimum of 15,000 bluejackets, and, as Shakespeare said about lesser duties, thank God, fasting.

III.

Except the Monitors, all our modern ships are built of steel, and in this connection it may be well to refer to a misconception that sometimes confuses the popular mind as to the significance of the term "steel vessels." To many unacquainted with technical language the word "steel," when applied to a war-ship, means that a steel vessel is armored—is one fit to cope with other armored constructions. This is a mistake. A certain protection is surely obtained by constructing a vessel of steel, but this is utterly unlike that given by armor, for an armored structure is one to which, in a greater or less degree both in extent and thickness, heavy plates, usually of steel, are bolted. This weighting of the sides is made necessary, in all vessels that can carry the load, by the destructive effect of modern ordnance—by the development, that is, of projectiles, guns, and explosives. Where, owing to limitations in design, armor cannot be carried, protection of another nature is attempted, generally with rather less than more success. This protection is applied to the spaces upon which the buoyancy of the ship rests, and depends upon water-tight compartments, minute subdivisions below water, and protective decks. In combination with the surrounding coal-bunkers, patent water-excluding material is at times employed, and these appliances are supposed to limit the destructive effect of an enemy's fire by localizing the amount of water admitted. But at the best these ingenious ideas are only tentative, and our employment of them is induced more by what we hope than by what we may reasonably expect. It is impossible to secure this localizing protection in a wooden hull, because of the difficulty in making water-tight the joints between timber and metal, and it is here that the main, and perhaps the only defensive advantage possessed by a steel unarmored cruiser over a wooden ship is found. It may be well, therefore, to remember that "steel" means simply an outer skin, generally under three-quarters of an inch in thickness.

Steel cruisers are divided into two types, armored and unarmored, in accordance with the amount of extra protection given. The armored type obtains more or less outside protection by the employment of vertical or inclined armor, but the second type has no external protection, though the machinery and magazines are generally shielded by a curved armor deck, which extends fore and aft, and varies from one and one-half to four or more inches in thickness.

Experts are agreed that each maritime nation must put afloat a force fitted to its environment, and that with every sea-frontiered country, let its traditions be what politics ordain, the defence of its home coasts is always the first essential. The nature of this defence is fixed, for beyond the fogs, beyond the windy phrases of specially interested corps, this is primarily naval. The integrity of every surf-beaten shore depends on its outer and first line, and this must be *battle-ships! battle-ships!! battle-ships!!!*—the more the better. All else is auxiliary; all else is ancillary. To these battle-ships, cruisers, scouts, rams, torpedo-vessels, and gunboats should be added, much as artillery and cavalry supplement the infantry, which is the battle hope of military strength.

On the second line heavily armored and armamented coast and harbor defence craft and torpedo and submarine boats should be arrayed, and, supplementing these, fortifications, submarine mines, and floating obstructions, all under naval control, should be provided. But above and beyond all else are battle-ships, the infantry of the sea. The further we remain from this the greater our danger, and hence, fortunately, the value of the type has been persistently pressed upon Congress for the last ten years by various Secretaries of the Navy.

IV.

No one can form a just idea of a battle-ship—such as the *Indiana*, for example—until it has been inspected first on the building-ways and then when commissioned for sea service. Abstract, life-denuded statements are of little avail, but perhaps if its factors of 348 feet length, 69 feet breadth, and 34 feet depth be turned into similar dimensions of the built-up streets or blocks of a city or town, the meaning of its bulk may become plainer. This steel mass is belted with armor half a yard in thickness, and mounts guns which weigh 67 tons and throw shells that will penetrate 30 inches of iron, or fly through the air for a distance of 11 miles. Forward, with its beak near the water-line, a monster ram projects, built at that level because if placed lower it would plough the water so as to arrest speed, be too weak for a siding blow, or, when entangled in the wreck of a vessel rammed below the armored deck, be freed with difficulty. Bilge-keels, long projecting fins curved with the sweep of the hull, are bolted to each side at the turn of the bottom, to reduce the rolling; and to preserve stability of flotation, two well-separated and independent skins surround the frame-work of the ship.

The armored redoubt built upon this monster fabric has walls 7½ feet high, all—plate, bolt, and rivet—of the finest steel. At either end of this redoubt a circular fort, crowned with a turret, carries a pair of 67-ton guns, which sweep the encircling horizon. Ashore such a structure would be considered marvellous, impregnable; but here its possibilities are a hundredfold multiplied, for it can move to any threatened point at a speed of 16 knots an hour, stow 1800 tons of coal, and carry 450 men and officers. In its holds are stores and provisions sufficient for a six months' cruise, and in its magazines and shell-rooms slumber powder and projectiles sufficient to sink a fleet. Its battery—its armament—is composed of four 13-inch guns, eight 8-inch, four 6-inch, and thirty rapid-fire and machine pieces. Were all these guns discharged at the same instant, three tons of metal, projected by a ton and a half of powder, would fly whizzing, shrieking, bursting, through the air. Each of its 13-inch guns can be loaded and fired in five minutes; every one of its 8-inch in one minute; and the combined energy of its four 13-inch reaches—what? 134,508 foot-tons; or, less technically described, they give an energy sufficient to throw the 10,000-ton *Indiana*, or any other battle-ship of her size, 13¼ feet straight into the air. Imagine this energy pounding destruction upon the armored sides of an enemy, while each of the 8-inch guns is moving a 250-pound shell, developing 7500 tons energy every eight seconds, against the lighter armored and unarmored sides and ends of the ship; and, fortifying this hurricane of death and destruction, fancy the automobile torpedoes, charged with guncotton or other high explosives, darting at the unprotected underwater body of the ship, while rapid-fire and machine guns are mowing down with pitiless storm of shell and shrapnel the exposed crews, and seeking out the hidden recesses of the ship—imagine this, and perhaps an idea may be formed of what a battle-ship can do in action. It seems generally believed, so far as I may read within the lines of newspaper discussion, that one of the notable distinctions between the three-decked ships of the line of the naval era just passed and these grim battle-ships is, apart from enormous differences of calibre, to be found in the number of guns carried. On the surface of things it does look as if the wooden walls bristling with a crowded array of ordnance must in number of guns have been beyond compare with the modern structures from which, here and there, protrude a few tubes of enormous diameter and great length, interspersed with lighter pieces, slender in shape, but disproportionately long. To a degree this is sound, but not to the extent popularly accepted. In proof of this let me quote here what Professor Philip Rounceville Alger, U.S.N., stated in a lecture before the Naval War College in the summer of 1894.

"It is a common idea," he declares, "that the modern battle-ship differs essentially from the ancient ship of the line in carrying few guns against the latter's many. But this is not true. It is true that the necessity for carrying very heavy guns, capable of piercing the armor of opposing battle-ships, has resulted in the practice of placing but four of these guns on a ship; but when the secondary-battery guns are taken into account (and these are much more powerful than larger guns of former times), it will be found that the usual battery of a first-class battle-ship comprises from forty to sixty guns. For example, our *Indiana*, *Massachusetts*, and *Oregon* each carries four 13-inch, eight 8-inch, four 6-inch, twenty 6-pounders, six 1-pounders, and four machine-guns, or forty-six guns in all, with a weight of projectile of 5926 pounds, and a total muzzle energy of over 200,000 foot-tons—that is, sufficient to lift the battle-ship herself twenty feet in the air."

I will take the *Caledonia* class, quoted by Sir Howard Douglas, as an example of what the armament of a first-rate ship of the line was nearly half a century ago:

Lower deck	Eight 8-inch guns	65 cwt.
	Twenty-four 32-pounders	56 cwt.
Middle deck	Four 8-inch guns	65 cwt.
	Thirty 32-pounders	50 cwt.
Main-deck	Thirty-four 22-pounders	42 cwt.
Quarter-deck	Six 32-pounders	45 cwt.
Forecastle	Fourteen 32-pounder carronades	17 cwt.
Total battery		120 guns.

These ships were manned by a thousand sailor-men of all rates; and what inspiring pictures they must have made going through that dear old-fashioned battle-drill, where boarders boarded and pikemen piked, and both cheered valorously, urged by orders fathoms long and deep, ringing hoarsely and unceasingly in an atmosphere of tar, and bean soup, and pork, and duff, and twisted screws of that abominable tobacco with which the English navy has ever been poisoned! The exercises prescribed for these guns survived in my early service; and indeed some of their features, all well enough then, are grafted to the present drill, making it ridiculously out of time with the tune and temper of the day.

The armament of the *Indiana* class has been given; that of the *Iowa* is practically the same, except in the employment of 12-inch calibres, and of six 4-inch rapid-fire guns instead of the four 6-inch in the earlier types. Five new battle-ships to be completed in 1899 are progressive developments of the *Indiana* and *Iowa* classes. Two of these, the *Kearsarge* and *Kentucky*, authorized in 1895, are classed as sea-going coast-line battle-ships, carrying two 13-inch barbette turrets, upon which two 8-inch turrets are superimposed. Here we reach a very vexed question, a memorable dispute of which the echoes rumble growlingly yet. Wide differences of opinion exist as to the wisdom of imposing one turret functioned by the same mechanism above another, and it is a very pretty quarrel as it stands. Naturally it was, after the earlier stages, convoyed into that fine old seaway wherein logic is shuttlecocked between positive assertion and flat contradiction—and it need not be gone into here. Personally I am not a believer in it, but then the others have the last word so far, for it is authorized. I trust the reader will notice the qualification "so far," as a long year yet remains in which a new conclusion may be reached. But whatever the merits of this particular question, these are splendid ships of 11,525 tons displacement, with a length of 368 feet and a breadth of over 72 feet. Here is the armament: Main battery, four 13-inch, four 8-inch, and fourteen 5-inch, the last rapid-fire pieces; secondary battery, twenty 6-pounders and six 1-pounder rapid-fire, four Gatlings, and one field-gun. This gives fifty-three guns in all, besides four torpedo-guns, and surely this is not a far cry in numbers from the days of the bristling 74s of famous memories. The speed is to be, like the *Indiana* class, sixteen knots on 10,000 horse-power.

In 1896 the *Illinois*, *Alabama*, and *Wisconsin* were authorized. These are similar in displacements and in expected manœuvring performances to the other first-class battle-ship. They carry two 13-inch barbette turrets, but no superimposed 8-inch turrets, probably a concession to those who opposed that system on "all-the-eggs-in-one-basket" principle. I know how appalling figures become, but as these batteries have a definite interest I venture to give them as evidences of the development going on so unceasingly in the world where they amuse themselves with destruction: Main battery, four 13-inch and fourteen 6-inch, the latter of the rapid-fire type; secondary battery, sixteen 6-pounders and four 1-pounder rapid-fire guns, one Gatling, and one field-gun.

Up to the end of its last session Congress had provided 11 battle-ships—a heartsome array, but hardly enough; for accepted naval opinion asserts that at least 30 should be ready, not necessarily in service, but be available for the proper defence of our coasts. Five of the 11 are in commission—two, the *Texas* and *Maine*, rated as steel armored battle-ships of the second class, the former carrying two 12-inch turrets, and the latter two 10-inch barbette turrets. Three of the first class are in commission—the *Indiana* and *Massachusetts* assigned to the North Atlantic, and the *Oregon* to the Pacific Squadron. These, technically described as sea-going coast-line battle-ships, mounting two 13-inch and four 8-inch barbette turrets, are splendid constructions. It is claimed that they are unequalled by similar displacements anywhere; indeed their builder asserts with reason that on a displacement of less than 11,000 tons they are superior in armor, armament, and handiness to foreign ships of over 14,000 tons, and their equal in speed and manœuvring power. The *Iowa*, which will be commissioned early this year, has been given increased freeboard, and, let it be hoped, bilge-keels, for the *Indiana* class rolls too seriously. The calibre of the *Iowa's* heavy guns has been changed from 13-inch to 12-inch, and as a later design, recently achieved improvements in the quality of armor have enabled its thickness to be reduced, while so extending its employment as to permit 78 per cent. of her water-line area to be covered.

V.

The *New York* and the *Brooklyn* are our only examples of the armored cruiser class. For general war purposes the type attains an importance second only to the battle-ship. These vessels are intended to keep the sea for long periods, to destroy an enemy's commerce, and to overtake and capture any commerce-destroyers put afloat. Secretary Tracy declared that four such ships distributed in various quarters would put an effectual stop to the depredations of as many fleets of ordinary cruisers, and this appears true enough, notably to those who recall the damage done by the Confederate cruisers. Indeed, the necessity of such vessels is one of the logical outcomes of a war which taught so many lessons to this nation.

Although the speed attained by the *New York*, 21 knots, does not equal that achieved by the *Columbia* and *Minneapolis*, still it is sufficient to enable her to cope with the most powerful ships commissioned to-day in other services, and to capture over 95 per cent. of all the ships in the world, naval or mercantile.

This is an achievement of great things, and it is set down here as an object-lesson for those who are interested in the wonderful improvements made in the motive power of naval ships during the last decade. Its assertion seems to be necessary, for while this development of steam-engineering has produced a type of fast war-vessels which exceeds the dreams even of the wildest theorists, still the magnitude of the task imposed is not popularly appreciated. Much of this is due to the fact that though the war-construction maximum has been raised above twenty knots, ocean merchant-steamers have made runs across the Western Ocean at an average rate greater than this, and hence appear to have conquered in the race for speed supremacy. But this deduction is unfair to the war-ship designer, for there is such an essential difference between the duties of naval vessels and of merchant-steamers that the performances and designs of the latter are greatly favored. A merchant-ship, to quote Naval-Constructor White, is built and engined for the purpose of steaming continuously at certain maximum speeds. Passenger-steamers, for example, are constructed to cover certain distances between certain ports at a certain specified rate, and hence they work under fairly uniform conditions of power development and engine revolutions, and can be regulated to give the best results under these circumstances. Every one on board is accustomed to these regular performances, and this favors economy and efficiency, while their regular return to port enables constant attention to be given to desirable repairs or adjustments.

A war-ship is not similarly circumstanced. If the simplest case be taken, when she is proceeding alone, it will be found that she is by no means so favorably placed. As a rule, her passages and most of her cruising must be done at low speeds, which require only a small portion of the power she must possess, in order that when the occasion demands she may rush to a high speed. The waste-work, unavoidable under these normal conditions, will always be considerable at low cruising speeds, even though every effort may be made to diminish it by using one of the twin screws, or one of the three screws—with which we are experimenting—or by the employment of other devices. The work is still more difficult when a war-ship forms a unit in a fleet, for here her speed must be varied constantly to suit the position in line, the change of bearing, or the sudden demands for urgency, such as the chasing, scouting, retreating, or despatch-work which an admiral may at any time be compelled to order. The speed of the fleet in battle may be that of the slowest ship, and to go from a low mean rate to a straining high-water mark with in the least possible time, and under conditions such as are sure to occur in actions, is a problem war-ship designers are confronted with, and constructors of peaceable traders need not consider. It is for this reason, therefore, that ambitious but imperfectly informed patriots who cross the Atlantic aboard one of the marvellous mail-boats, and wonder why our men-of-war do not equal the speed so beautifully maintained, had better pause before they growl, as they may probably find an explanation in the radically different duties expected of the two types.

Hitherto, in special naval vessels, such as torpedo-boats, the highest speed of the ocean racers has been greatly exceeded; and even taking the question by and large, it is not hazardous to assert that the average speed of modern ships of war is to-day at least a knot greater than the average speed of the high—not of the exceptional—classes of merchant-vessels. I desire to emphasize this, as I have suffered from the imperfectly adjusted tempers of such growlers.

It is impossible, as I have stated in "Modern Ships of War," to explain the difficulties which have beset this development, because the conditions that surround any attempt at speed increase are such as can be properly understood only by those who have technical training in this field of employment. Then, too, the great ocean racers have so much accustomed the public to wonderful sea performances that the results are cheerfully accepted without a knowledge of the credit due the constructors and engineers who have achieved them. But with greater experience, the higher surely will be the appreciation which every one must give; for, as Chief-Constructor White of the British navy has truly said, "when it is realized that a vessel weighing ten thousand tons can be propelled over a distance of nine knots in an hour by the combustion of less than one ton of coal, the ten-thousandth part of her own weight, it will be admitted that the result is marvellous, and that the 'way of a ship in the midst of the sea' is beyond full comprehension."

It seems to me, however, that the desire for speed may be pushed too far, and that when a very great trial speed of 21 knots can be obtained by a 9000-ton fighting-ship like the *New York* it may be a mistaken policy to build such ships as the *Columbia* and *Minneapolis*, and a sheer waste of money to produce, mainly because of an ingrained egotism, such overgrown monsters as the British *Terrible* and *Powerful*. It may gratify national pride to have afloat the smartest ships, but I doubt if mere smartness is the quality most strenuously to be sought in a man-of-war, especially when such expensive smartness may only hope to be shown in the very remote case of chasing a baker's dozen of ships.

I cannot find the cost of the British destroyers, but here are the reported contract prices of the hulls and machinery of our two armored and two protected cruisers

Class.		Cost.	Tonnage.
Armored Cruisers....	New York........	$2,985,000	8200
	Brooklyn...........	2,986,000	9271
Protected Cruisers...	Columbia...........	2,725,000	7325
	Minneapolis........	2,690,000	7375

An analysis of this table shows that the protected cruisers cost less than the armored cruisers, ship for ship, but if cost per ton of displacement is regarded, the armored cruisers are the cheaper ships, the relative cost per ton for hull and machinery (casting out fractions) being, *Columbia*, $372; *Minneapolis*, $365; *New York*, $364; *Brooklyn*, $322. I do not enter into the question of war efficiency and its relative cost, for there is no standard by which to measure, as one type is a fighting-ship and the other is not. Practically one is a fast man-of-war, the other in design a slightly faster merchant-ship.

The armored cruiser *Brooklyn* was laid down as a sister ship to the *New York*, the designs of both including all the features of protection, buoyancy, and stability embodied in the plans of the later protected cruisers. This means she has a protective deck extending her entire length, with a cellular space for the storage of the coal and stores placed above it. In addition, an armored belt nearly four inches thick is bolted to the hull plating just above the outer edge of the protective deck, and is carried for several feet above and below the water-line, and for a distance of over one-third her length along the longitudinal centre. Besides this, four of her six 8-inch guns are mounted in armored turrets, which protect them from the direct fire of light rapid-fire pieces, and from the fragments of large-calibre shell.

In the *Brooklyn* the displacement was increased for the purpose of allowing a heavier battery to be carried; additional protection was given by mounting all the guns of the main battery in complete turrets, and by furnishing the broadside guns—carried behind armored sponsons—with armored screen bulkheads, which were built as prolongations of the sponson armor plates. She has more freeboard forward than the *New York*, but otherwise is very like her, except, as already stated, in her greater battery power and its additional protection against high-explosive projectiles, and in those enormous smoke-stacks which raise protesting lengths to skies that deny them grace or fitness.

VI.

To-day, as of old, honest men differ honestly, and it is unwise in a mixed company of nerve-rasping experts to assert that the gun, the ram, or the torpedo is the only weapon for sea mastery. Wide differences of belief exist among these thin-skinned prophets upon the relative values of fighting instruments; and this dispute of the learned must continue until the questions are settled by the Western nations in that next sea war of which they are always hoping and prophesying so much. Of course cocksure theorists, wiser than Lord Thurlow ever looked, have, as usual, solved the problems off-hand; but luckily rational judgments go more slowly, and are apt to be engendered by special lines of study, and proclaimed according to the vividness of individual temperaments and imaginations. We have had a few modern sea actions, in which the gun, the ram, or the torpedo has in turn asserted a controlling influence, but, fairly stated, there are no general experiences sufficiently definite to yield fixed principles. Therefore, while the cocksure theorist may still proclaim his infallibility and delight in posing as a prophet, his success, should it come, will be due more to his luck and audacity than to his serene logic.

Most naval men accept the gun as the governing sea weapon, and many authorities claim that it bears the same relation to the ram and the torpedo as the battle-ship—the accepted essential of sea fighting—bears to auxiliary coast-defenders, cruisers, and torpedo and minor boats. After the gun, its champions assert, comes in due order the ram, torpedo, or the torpedo-ram, or, if the gun man be a sceptical enthusiast, neither the ram nor torpedo in any possible combination.

But the gun man is not allowed to have it all his own way. "Let us recall the fact," wrote Admiral Colomb, "that the serious part of a future naval attack does not appear to be the guns, but the rams." "The beak," declared Admiral Touchard, "is now the proposed weapon in naval combats, the *ultimo ratio* of modern war." "Rams are the naval weapons to which I attach the chief importance. In my opinion," says Captain Pellew, "the aim of all manœuvring and preliminary practice with the gun should be to get an opportunity to ram."

The ram has many advocates in this country, but *facile princeps* Rear-Admiral Ammen, to whose persistency is due the inception—if not the acceptance in its final shape—of the *Katahdin*, the only exemplar of the type now in service. He has long and earnestly pointed out that rams have sometimes played an important part, sometimes the leading rôle, in sea-fights; and other officers of approved experience believe in a "*swarm of rams*" as the only possible solution of the war-ship problem. Most modern ships have a ram bow, and these experts who declare that the torpedo fired from a ship is simply a logical extension of the ram principle are too persistent with text and sermon to be silenced by derisive platitudes. Should the question be governed by age of employment, the ram could claim precedence, for in the earliest days of fighting afloat it was the main sea weapon. After the battle of Lissa the story of the ram became a blue-water classic. Admiral Tegetthoff in his report wrote, modestly, "During the general combat the Commanding Officer of my Flag-ship managed within the space of an hour to run aboard three Sardinian ironclads, of which two sustained heavy damages and the third was run down and sunk." But there are rams and rams, and the improvisers of naval defence who decry appropriations upon the loudly vaunted creative possibilities of our people must not believe that the results achieved by the *Ferdinand Max* can be repeated by whalebacks and bow-strengthened harbor tugs. If we are to have rams—and I think we should, not as essentials, but as auxiliaries to battle-ships and guns—let us build, as Admiral Ammen desired, vessels wherein "striking force" is the main element to be considered. To get this, the structure specially built, not extemporized, should have very high speed, great manœuvring power, exceptional strength, and sufficient impregnability in hull and conning-tower to resist the penetration of missiles of high energy.

The Monitor type is so generally considered as purely American in inception that a denial of its all-around usefulness is looked upon as an ingratitude to a friend who proved his worth in an hour of sorest need. The opportunity was afforded me a few months ago of telling in these columns the history of this type's development, and want of space forbids the rehearsing of that old but much-misunderstood story here. But it may be of interest to state that its dominant value as a fighting-machine is not accepted by the majority of our own officers, and is very strenuously denied by foreign experts.

As it appears to me, the usefulness of the type is limited by high-sea conditions, which relegate it to the second or possibly to the third class in our scheme of national defence; for the inherent principles which luckily make it a poor target and give it great energy as a gun-carrier militate against its employment save at the threshold of our ports. Monitors did good service during our war. Two of them the *Miantonomoh* and *Monadnock*, well-convoyed, made long and arduous voyages, and there are notable instances where others, unaccompanied, have ridden out gales of the greatest severity. But as a fighting-machine in any but moderate weather, this characteristic American type belongs unfortunately to the inner and not to the outer line, not to that defiance in the Open upon which national safety must rely. Five of these vessels are in commission, and they are most competent factors in our fleet for harbor and smooth-water coast defence. Three, the *Puritan*, *Amphitrite*, and *Monadnock*, are described as double barbette turret Monitors, and two, the *Terror* and *Miantonomoh*, as double-turret Monitors. The *Puritan*, a noble, eye-compelling war-ship, is of 6060 tons, and the others are of about 4000 tons displacement. These five, with the thirteen turreted vessels already mentioned as of slight war value, constitute our force of low-freeboarded ships—though technically we must include with these that fine coast-defence vessel *Monterey*, now in service on the Pacific coast.

VII.

Modern fleets are more complex than those of the sail and early steam periods; for then, grouped as entities, and without particular relation to anything but squadron subdivision, ships of line, frigates, and sloops made up the force intrusted to a commander-in-chief. To-day each battle-ship is the leader of a little squadron, the mother-ship of a family which includes cruisers, rams, scouts, torpedo-gunboats, torpedo-boats, and colliers, while to every three battle-ships and their households supply and repair vessels are added. This complexity is the result of sea conditions, which, while controlling now as in the parlous days when sailing fleets whitened the Atlantic, are intensified by the changes steam and magic ordnance have introduced. We must have types which will accompany and assist battle-ships; vessels to carry stores, to weaken the enemy's productive power by destroying his commerce, to convoy our merchantmen, and as skirmishers and scouts to furnish that earliest information which often spells victory. Nelson called frigates "the eyes of the fleet," and as we cannot afford to have a possible foe with stronger maritime vision than our own, we have acquired a class of cruisers that are unsurpassed anywhere.

Indeed, up to 1893 our most notable progress was made in this class; and though the greatest diversity is found in it, still, between all the ships, sufficient resemblances exist in design to group logically as war instruments such divergent examples as the 2000-ton vessels of the *Detroit* class, and the *Columbia* and *Minneapolis* of 7350 tons. In all of these ships, save the two last named, good battery power has been allied with high speed; and even to the excepted ones such a reasonable battery may be given that we can no longer exploit the *marron glacé* which insinuates that they will, if caught out late, be arrested for carrying concealed weapons.

It is a regrettable fashion among some critics of our naval programme to deny the usefulness of battle-ships, and to assert an unalterably Gradgrindy belief in unarmored ships. Here is what the late Secretary of the Navy set down as the Department views. "The military value of a commerce-destroying fleet is easily overrated. Cruisers directed against an enemy's wealth afloat are capable of doing great damage. They create consternation among merchants and worry the people against whose property they are directed, but, unsupported by ships of the line, their operations are perhaps never decisive of a war. During the twenty years from 1792 to 1812, the period covered by the French Revolution, French cruisers and privateers captured many thousands of British vessels and cargoes, but these captures operated more to provoke a spirit of determined hostility among the British people than to create such distress or alarm as would put an end to hostilities. English line-of-battle ships, instead of scattering to convoy merchant-vessels, hunted and destroyed the French vessels of war at the battle of the Nile, at Cape St. Vincent, and at Trafalgar. In the mean time, in spite of her losses of merchant-ships and their cargoes, England continued to grow rich by her commerce. With her mighty battle-ships she cut off Napoleon's communications by water; with her wealth she subsidized her enemies; and it is undoubtedly true that the two great factors in the downfall of the great conqueror were the numerous battle-ships of England, with their hardy crews of Anglo-Saxons, and the enormous wealth of the greatest sea power in the world.

"The history of our civil war furnishes a more recent and familiar proof of my statement. The cruises of the *Alabama* and her sister ships were uncommonly successful. Semmes rivalled the exploits of Jean Bart and Duguay-Trouin. History will rank him as one of the most famous rovers of the seas. His success delighted the Confederates, but it did not benefit their cause. Many indeed were the complaints made against President Lincoln because he sent so few ships to search for the Confederate cruisers, but he was too wise to listen to the clamor. The fleets of the United States were not to be thus diverted from their purpose. They blockaded the ports of the Confederacy, they penetrated its rivers, cut off its interior communications, and thus it was that the navy rendered services to the cause of the Union which the public has never yet fully appreciated. Merchants insured against war risks, and individual losses were borne by communities. Commerce-destroying was irritating, but it decided nothing. It would have been ineffectual even if the Confederates had possessed ten times as many cruisers, unsupported as they were by line-of-battle ships.

"If our government in the future is to have naval strength enough to command the peace and be in a condition to 'enforce the terms dictated by its sense of right and justice,' it must have more battle-ships, and must build a reasonable number of torpedo-boats.

"Believing that our force of cruisers was relatively far in advance, I have continuously advocated additional battle-ships, torpedo-boats, and light-draught gunboats for special service in our own and foreign waters."

Sixteen vessels of the cruiser class are borne on the navy list; of these, thirteen are partially protected or protected cruisers, viz., *Chicago*, *Boston*, *Atlanta*, *Newark*, *Charleston*, *Baltimore*, *San Francisco*, *Philadelphia*, *Olympia*, *Cincinnati*, *Raleigh*, *Columbia*, and *Minneapolis;* and three are cruisers—*Montgomery*, *Detroit*, and *Marblehead*.

VIII.

It is still a burning tactical question whether torpedo-boats or torpedo flotillas are not, in high-sea duels or actions, to supplant huge ships and monster fleets. Is or is not David to kill Goliath? May not the whirring pygmy with the air-gun, the putty-blower, be, after all, a better man than the lumbering giant with an unwieldy club? In season and out the torpedo man shouts for the supremacy of his type, let all else perish; not because of its cheapness, which is granted, but because it, *it* is the essential of naval warfare. With equal fervor, possibly, the battle-ship man denies all but the auxiliary value of the torpedo craft, and, as the last word spoken, repeats the echoes of Yalu and of Wei-hai-wei as proof of this belief. When the wily torpedo man quotes the fate of the *Blanco Encalada* at Caldera, and of the *Aquidaban* at Desterro, the proof-fortified holder of the big ship's brief retorts that both earned their fates by a neglect of the simplest sea devices, and that the torpedoes wasted in the attack before the death-stroke showed the futility of the weapon.

The truth is, the torpedo-boat has proved to be a very-delicate instrument, even the modern type, for there is a general abandonment of the smaller boats for sea work. Not only is the machinery liable to derangement under simple conditions, but even in moderate weather a day or two is sufficient to exhaust the stanchest crew, because of the excessive liveliness of the types. Still, all the nations are building the larger boats, and it is idle to deny their value when over 1600 are afloat or under construction, and while a mad rivalry exists in their production. In the matter of speed the record climbs slowly but curiously. In *Notes of the Year's Naval Progress* (1896), Ensign Kitelle, U.S.N., writes: "A French boat broke the record with a speed of 31.029 knots, and England is now contracting for two boats to make 32 knots, and many more at 30 knots. Mr. J. A. Normand shows theoretically, under the laws governing speed and displacement, that for a vessel of 300 tons displacement the propulsive efficiency is at a maximum when the speed is about 23.3 knots, so that above this speed the performance of the vessel improves. He believes that by retaining less reserve buoyancy and correspondingly increasing the power the speed of torpedo-boats of 300 tons may exceed 34 knots."

This is a fine promise, for 34 knots mean nearly 40 land miles an hour.

We have in our service four torpedo-boats—the *Cushing*, *Porter*, *Stiletto*, and *Ericsson*—and twelve others under construction, which are to develop speeds, according to class, from 20 and 22½ knots to 30 knots.

Eighteen gunboats comprise our contribution to types which are useful in peace, notably in Asiatic and Brazilian waters, because they are light in draught and small enough to be asylums of command for middle-aged lieutenant-commanders and lieutenants who have stagnated for years in subordinate positions. Their war value is not great, but their flag-showing possibilities are not lightly to be passed over. In any event, they serve as sops to the Cerberus of niggardly appropriation committees, for when these strain at battle-ships, much-bothered secretaries can induce them to swallow gunboats, especially if it be promised that the names of favored boroughs will be tacked to them. The *Vesuvius* has not achieved the place so loudly heralded for dynamite cruisers, and the Holland submarine torpedo-boat is still in an experimental stage.

It has been impossible within the limits afforded to go into the details of foreign services, but as a tag to this article it may be well to add two tables which show the relative positions of the great navies. It must be remembered that abroad naval armaments are neither so extensive nor so costly, absolutely or proportionally, as land establishments. Indeed, compared with armies, navies seem to be considered as secondary forces by all the maritime governments except England and perhaps France, and this despite those inexorable truths of history which Captain Alfred Mahan has reasserted so brilliantly and earnestly in his *Sea Power*. Leaving out the value of the navy as the determining factor in a campaign, a consideration of the shipping which needs protection should alone be sufficient to emphasize the necessity of a great floating defence.

What is more, the average tonnage of steamers increases yearly, and the tendency to build larger vessels in all types is so fixed that in every way the intrinsic value and the importance to national well-being of shipping advanced with the progress of civilization, with the march of law and order among nations.

With our relatively weak force and want of system, the fleets, notably those of the three or four great nations, appear enormous, but in results even these are far below the standards which the autonomy and dignity of the sea powers demand. In his report to the President for 1896, Secretary Herbert showed the number and classes of foreign and home vessels in service, authorized, or building, all serviceable, and intended for the protection of national integrity and of the merchant fleets afloat to be as follows:

Class.	England.			France.			Russia.			Italy.			Germany.			United States.			Spain.		
	Built.	Building.	Total.	Built.	Building.	Total.	Built.	Building.	Total.	Built.	Building.	Total.	Built.	Building.	Total.	Built.	Building.	Total.	Built.	Building.	Total.
Battle-ships: First class	22	12	34	10	8	18	5	6	11	8	2	10	4	2	6	3	6	9	1	...	1
Second class	12	...	12	11	1	12	5	2	7	2	...	2	7	...	7	2	...	2	...	...	...
Third class	11	...	11	2	...	2	...	...	...	5	...	5	3	...	3	...	...	...	2	...	2
Total	45	12	57	23	9	32	10	8	18	15	2	27	14	2	16	5	6	11	3	...	3
Coast defence ships	13	..	13	16	...	16	10	4	14	...	...	...	17	2	19	6	1	7	...	...	...
Cruisers:																					
Armored	16	...	16	9	1	10	9	1	10	1	5	6	...	1	1	2	...	2	3	4	7
First class	11	10	21	2	4	6	2	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	1	3	...	3	1	...	1
Second and third classes	51	24	75	10	9	19	3	1	4	16	1	17	3	5	8	13	...	13	7	...	7
Lookout ships or gunboats	19	...	19	12	...	12	...	...	...	...	...	...	11	1	12	9	9	18	22	...	22
Torpedo-gunboats	34	...	34	12	3	15	8	...	8	15	2	17	9	1	10	...	...	...	3	4	7
Torpedo boat-destroyers	...	...	98	...	...	3	...	...	1	...	...	1	...	...	11	...	...	1	...	2	2
Torpedo boats	...	...	160	...	...	241	...	...	161	...	...	176	...	.	145	3	15	18	19	4	23

One question which naturally interests Americans is our relative position on the list. This is more or less difficult to define, notwithstanding the hit-or-miss statements of the press—for it may be accepted confidently that most tables are misleading, because the valuation is based not upon fighting values, but upon the number and tonnage of ships, irrespective of their age, speed, battery power, or armor. In the table given below these principal features have been considered separately, and reasonable allowance has been made for divergences from the assumed normal—the figures 57.5 for Great Britain meaning, for example, that the fighting value of her armored fleet is equal to 57.5 battle-ships of the type (1896) assumed as the standard. This is not rigorously correct, but it is near enough to make us wish that this great nation which we love so well was third, and not a reasonably doubtful fifth.

Relative Standing.	Nation.	Value in terms of Standard.	Relative Standing.	Nation.	Value in terms of Standard.
1	Great Britain	57.5	11	Turkey	1.5
2	France	37.5	12	Norway and Sweden	1.4
3	Russia	22.5			
4	Italy	20.0	13	Argentina	1.3
5	United States	10.0	14	Brazil	1.1
6	Germany	9.8	15	Denmark	1.0
7	Spain	4.5	16	Greece	0.9
8	Japan	4.0	17	Chile	0.9
9	Austria	3.0	18	Portugal	0.1
10	Netherlands	2.4	19	China	0.0

AUTOMOTIVE-DRIVERS.

WHAT of the drivers of the electric automotives? What model are they to pattern by? How are they to dress, and how comport themselves? What does fashion demand in this matter, the importance of which becomes daily more obvious as the public automotives grow more familiar in the streets? Every reasonably careful observer has his notion of what is proper form in a coachman. A coachman should be horsy and yet dignified. The more he looks like a bishop without entirely losing the air of familiarity with horse the nearer he approaches perfection. Some of the automotive-drivers seem to have been prinked out with the idea of making them look like coachmen. Some of them appear in clothes of the material known as cords, with queer-looking hats of the same color as their clothes. But any plan to make them look like coachmen is absurd, because they are so conspicuously lacking in horsiness. Imitation won't do in their case. They are a new type, and some sort of fitting garb must gradually be developed to suit them. It must be handsome, decorous; and, above all, it must inspire confidence. This last is the great point. In a carriage drawn by horses the occupants have something ahead of them to receive the impact of any head-on collision; but if an automotive runs into anything, the passengers are bound to get the full benefit of the experience. Whatever citizen hires an automotive to carry him about the streets of New York, though his heart beats stoutly between steel ribs, still he wants all possible assurance that the man who steers the vehicle is thoroughly competent and responsible. This indispensable responsibility should appeal as far as possible to the eye and appear at a glance. The clothing that inspires most confidence in New York is that worn by the police. It is a huge compliment to the police to say so, but, on the whole, it seems to be true. Projectors of automotives who are casting about for the best costume for their drivers would better look for their inspiration in the uniform of the police than in the liveries of coachmen. If the automotive-men could wear a spiked helmet like Emperor William's, it might have a good effect, and help not only to reassure possible "fares," but make the cable-car gripmen more chary of running into their vehicles.

And of course every automotive-driver should have a special license, only to be issued to such as have piloted a self-propelling vehicle twelve times from the Battery to Columbia University without serious accident.

THE FUTURE.

OH, what delight have I foreseen
In days that leave the days behind!
Faith, like the earth, is ever green,
One thing forever new and kind—
It burns among our lives serene,
A deathless glory of the mind.

The Past lies backward with its dead,
Its voices dumb, its splendors laid
With all the leaves of summers shed:
Glad praise to them who lived and made
Earth better for their strong words said,
For what is learned, for what has staid!

The Past is real to me, though not
More real than what the Future hoards:
Time in its augury bears the lot
Of golden loves and broken swords,
Of dreams fulfilled, despairs forgot,
Of slaves made equal to their lords.

More than the man to me the child,
More than things done the things undone;
Who can foretell some rapture wild
That waits the coming of a sun?
Who can foresing a song unguiled
By sorrowing lips of any one?

There are skies in heaven beyond the skies
Men view through magic telescopes;
Beyond the far-seen blue there lies
A world of infinite dreams and hopes:
The unknown stars are golden isles
Where springs lie sweet on flowering slopes.

Oh, I would gladly share the years
That wait for them new-born to-day;
The world grows sweeter while its fears
Are softly hushed or brushed away—
And whoso looks ahead appears
One who may bravely fare and pray.

GEORGE EDGAR MONTGOMERY.

RECALLED STORMY TIMES

"WELL, that looks natural," said the old soldier, looking at a can of condensed milk on the breakfast table in place of ordinary milk that failed on account of the storm. "It's the Gail Borden Eagle Brand we used during the war."—[*Adv.*]

ADVICE TO MOTHERS.—MRS. WINSLOW'S SOOTHING SYRUP should always be used for children teething. It soothes the child, softens the gums, allays all pain, cures wind colic, and is the best remedy for diarrhœa.—[*Adv.*]

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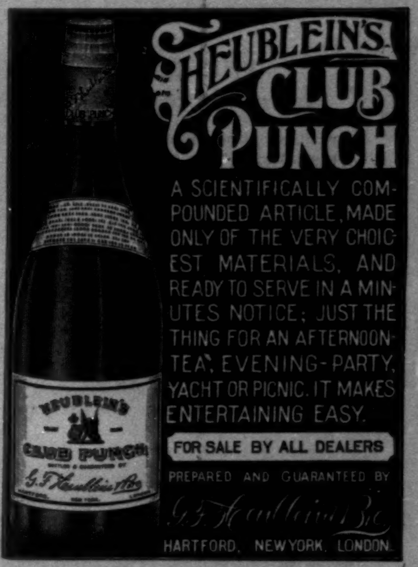

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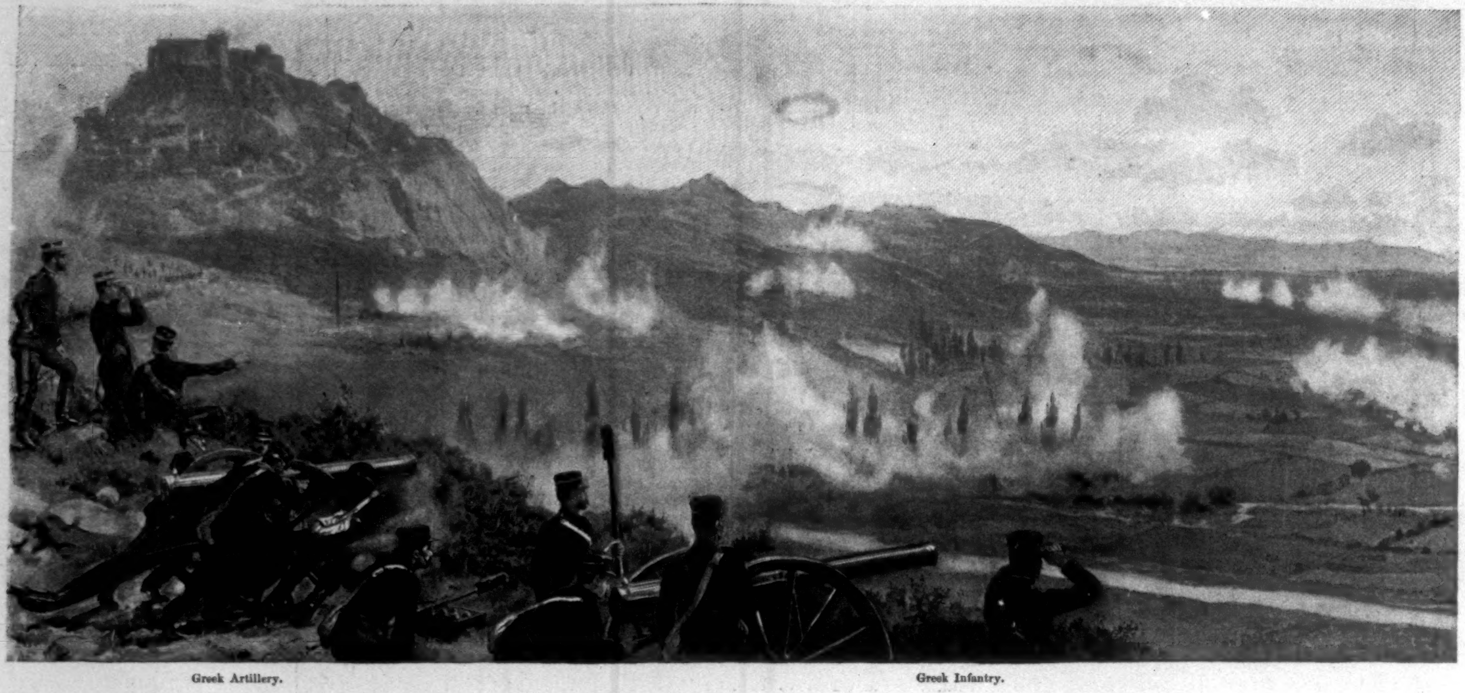
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THE GRECO-TURKISH WAR—THE LAST STAND OF THE GREEKS—THE BATTLE OF DHOMOKO.

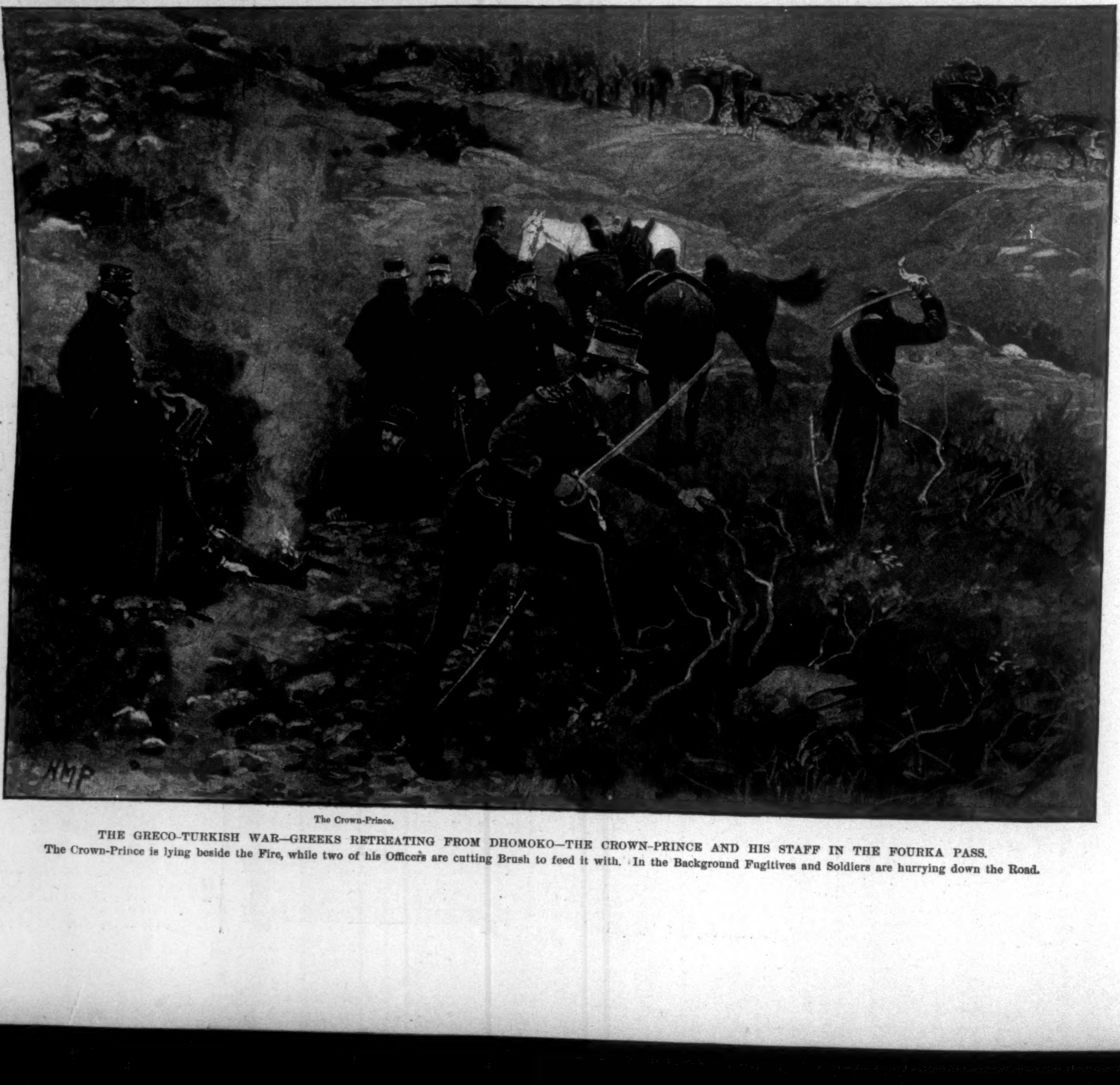
THE TURKS IN THESSALY.

The retreat of the Greeks from Dhomoko was probably the last act in the Greco-Turkish war. If hostilities are resumed, the contest will almost certainly include more than these two countries. England has definitely announced her withdrawal from the concert of Europe if the Turks do not withdraw from Thessaly, and that can scarcely be held to mean anything else than the purpose to act with Greece should there be occasion. Meantime each party is doing its best to strengthen its position.

The Greeks are drilling their troops, and erecting fortifications at the famous pass of Thermopylae—which General Miles, who has recently visited Thessaly, pronounces impregnable. That term, however, is not to be taken absolutely in these days of Krupp cannon. Whether 25,000, or even 50,000, men can hold successfully any position against 150,000 to 200,000 men supplied with the best modern arms may be doubted; and the Greek ministry, recognizing the gravity of the situation, is putting forth every effort to defend Athens—at the same time that it announces to the powers that, having obeyed their instructions, it relies upon their protection.

On the other hand, the Turks are acting as if they had not the faintest idea of leaving the province, which, after sixteen years of Greek rule, is again—providentially, as they believe—in their hands. The whole machinery of provincial government is being established and put in running order. The entire list of officers, from the vali down to the mudir, have been appointed. Customs are being collected, Moslem schools opened, and, most important of all, arrangements are being rapidly perfected for the receipt of taxes as soon as the fall harvest shall be ready. With these go apparently the usual concomitants of Moslem administration—bribery, extortion, outrage of every kind. Just how much truth there is in these stories it is of course impossible to say just now. At Larissa and Volo the Turkish army seems to have acted in a wonderfully exemplary way, but there are always camp-followers, and the Moslems of Thessaly may be by no means unwilling to take advantage of their supremacy. At any rate, the fact that the ambassadors at Constantinople have sent representatives to Thessaly to investigate shows that the reports have reached them and are not considered ill founded.

The events of the next few weeks will be watched with interest. That an immediate solution will be reached is scarcely probable. Turkey is well versed in the arts of delay, and Russian and German diplomacy is fully equal to the occasion. There will be protests, perhaps resignations or dismissals of Turkish ministries, shifting of responsibility from one to another, requests for delay until certain charges and claims can be investigated, and so the summer will wear away. Whether any of the powers can take decisive action without bringing on war is not evident. Valiant words have been spoken, but with the Turk words count very little, especially when against England's words he can balance Germany's active assistance.



THE GRECO-TURKISH WAR—GREEKS RETREATING FROM DHOMOKO—THE CROWN-PRINCE AND HIS STAFF IN THE FOURKA PASS.
The Crown-Prince is lying beside the Fire, while two of his Officers are cutting Brush to feed it with. In the Background Fugitives and Soldiers are hurrying down the Road.

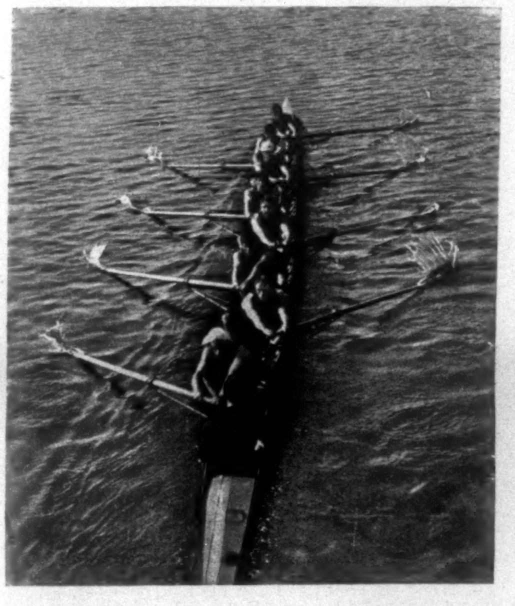
AMATEVR - SPORT

However intangible the college boating situation may be as to the results of next week's racing on the Hudson, there is at least a strong probability that the winner of the Harvard-Yale-Cornell 'varsity race will beat Cornell's winning time (19 m. 21 s.) of last year. And even that prospect depends for eventuation entirely upon the condition of the water.

This, at least, is a fact, however—that Harvard's crew of '97 is a stronger and a faster one than the '96 eight whom Cornell defeated by two and one-half lengths. Just at present Cornell's prospects are not so encouraging as they were this time last season, or, indeed, as they were at the opening of the present season—but more of that anon.

There is, of course, no comparison possible between Yale's crews of '96 and '97, for the obvious reason that in '96 the men trained for a sprint of about one mile and a quarter, and this year they are not only preparing for a race of four miles, but using a style of rowing totally changed from that employed by Yale crews for five years back. And in this latter style—a return to first principles, I shall call it—Yale has made considerable improvement in the last month.

The race with Wisconsin afforded the first opportunity of noting what progress the men had made, under racing conditions, with the new stroke. But it was a small opportunity, after all, as the Yale eight was put on its mettle for not over a half-mile at the beginning, when it had obtained a lead of three lengths, and seemed content, voluntarily or otherwise, I cannot say, to let it go at that. Although there appeared no reason why the distance should not, and judged by the work in the first half-mile, could not, be increased, yet close observation of Yale at the finish was not convincing that they were pulling easily. They did swing past the two-mile flag with a long slow stroke, and continued for a half-mile farther to their boat-house, showing plenty of reserve force, but they gave the impression of putting all their power into each stroke—more power than the pace of the boat indicated. I mention this point particularly because their brushes with the Freshmen crew throughout the spring practice at New Haven have revealed the same tendency.


YALE'S RETURN TO FIRST ROWING PRINCIPLES.
The '97 'Varsity at Full Reach.

As for Yale's changed style of rowing, it is, as I have said, rather a return to first principles than a revolution. Certainly, at a glance, the average observer would conclude the "Cook stroke" to be a thing of the past. If we recall the straight ramrodlike back of the Yale oarsman of four or five years past, and the beautiful precision with which he timed arm, leg, and shoulder motion on the full reach, we can see no resemblance to the comparatively rather slovenly way in which the men at present rowing stretch themselves out on the catch, with back bowed and shoulders dropped. The contrast is just as marked and of the same nature on the finish.

And yet an analysis of these differences goes to convince that Mr. Cook has not, after all, strayed so very far from the lines which, year after year, brought success to the Yale crew. In the application of their power there is no very decided departure from the old methods. Instead of the legs having the greater share of the work, as formerly, it is now more evenly distributed between the back and the legs.

In the matter of catch—of the clean straight pull through the water and the quick smooth finish—there is but slight alteration in the out-board work. Mr. Cook's new ideas are entirely English, and he is endeavoring to coach his crew to row as successful Leander rowed last year.

Since Mr. Cook's old ideas were also English, and as in twenty years there has been but little change in that school of rowing, the old and the new, as exemplified in the Yale boat, come very near to each other in many points.

I incline to the belief that rowing-men at Poughkeepsie will discover no marked alteration in the Yale style of '97 from that taught at New Haven from '86 to '92. Since that time and up to this year Yale has been gradually but certainly shortening her stroke.

Up to the time the crew went to New London, ten days ago, its form was not equal to that of the usual Yale crew on June 1.

But the last week at New Haven showed emphatic improvement, and the crew has been going along on the same line since it began practice on the Thames. The body-work of the men is very much better, and the swing receives due attention from individuals and crew. But the outboard work, in which Yale crews have invariably excelled, is, this year, the day of this writing, considerably below the standard. The blades show more uncertainty and rougher handling than we are accustomed to see.

Even more disconcerting is the occasional break at No. 5, who allows himself to drop down on the full reach when the three stern men are coming up, and as a result his power is applied too late. This is a fault which a conscientious man can remedy, and I expect to see the Yale eight showing a clean swing and powerful stroke when they are worked into racing form. At present they are not so well together or so finished as Harvard and Cornell, although the boat travels evenly and smoothly, with only the slightest hitch between strokes. That rhythmic stroke that characterized Yale crews for four years past has been abandoned, but in its stead has come a power which, when the men get on a good streak of work, sends the shell along at a lively pace. The photograph we publish this week conveys a suggestion of that power.

E. M. Underwood. W. M. Crutchfield. W. N. Davis (Capt.).

D. Neilson. W. H. Johnson (Manager). D. W. Jones.
S. W. Werlein. W. J. Polk. J. A. Omberg.

VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY TRACK TEAM—WINNERS OF SOUTHERN INTER-COLLEGIATE CHAMPIONSHIP '97.

Yale may be beaten at Poughkeepsie, as popular opinion anticipates, and to which I do not at present subscribe, but I am persuaded the crew will not be the poorest she has sent out in recent years, and it ought to be better than some that have taken victory to New Haven. With the exception of No. 4, the crew is determined upon, and in fact has been for some time. Langford is making a fine stroke-oar, and Yale will be stronger at this most important seat than any other crew on the river, despite the three excellent strokes in the Harvard, Cornell, and Columbia boats. Griswold, Allen, and Bailey are at 7, 6, and 5. No. 4 seems to rest between Greenway and Mills. Campbell, Whitney, and Rogers are at 3, 2, and bow. It is not a crew of exceptional individuals, but they are a good even lot, and should work into a very smooth-going eight. Of this I shall be better able to judge after my last look at them, while this is on the press.

It is rather late to enter into detailed comment on Wisconsin's showing against Yale—and, moreover, space is wanting. But I cannot refrain from complimenting these Western university oarsmen on their sportsmanly spirit both in and before the race. To set out upon a journey of twelve hundred miles, with certain defeat all but visible at the other end, indicates indomitable courage.

Added to this trial of so long a trip was the further handicap of a crew considerably broken up at the eleventh hour, and no substitutes of equal skill to put into the boat.

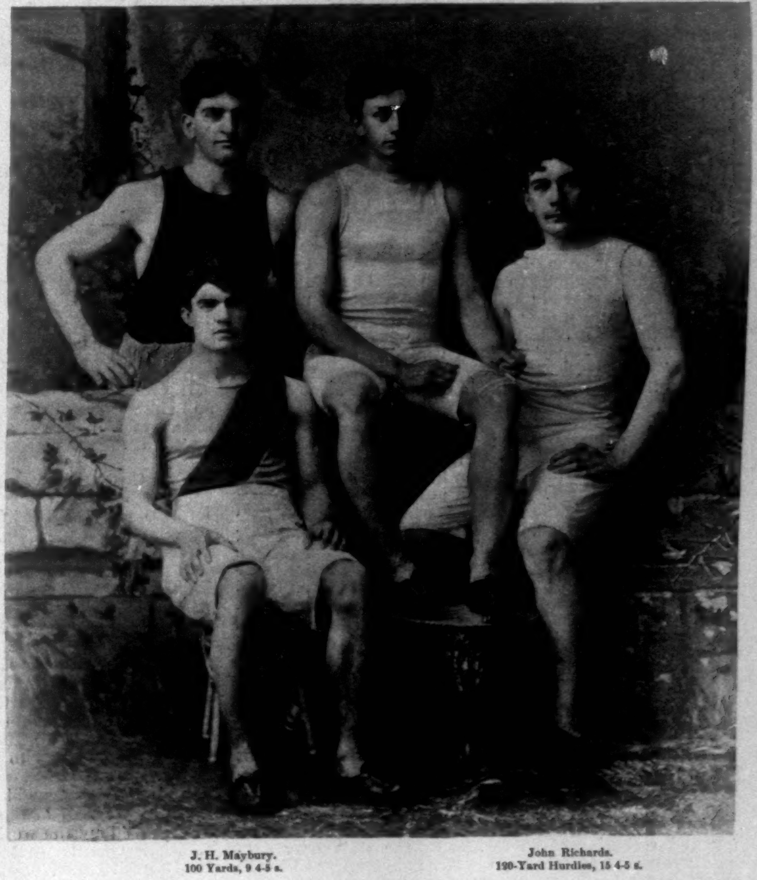
The odds against them, however, appeared not to discourage. They stuck manfully to their work, and in the actual race rowed themselves to a stand-still with commendable pluck. Their hearts were of the right sort, but their skill was unequal to the demand put upon it. Yale's time for the two miles was 10 m. 54 s., Wisconsin's, ten seconds slower, although on the home course and before her crew was broken up Wisconsin had done 10 m. 25 s. While admiring their plucky venture, I cannot help wondering whether an equal expenditure of money and energy in nearabout home waters would not result in more satisfactory and more permanent benefit to Wisconsin and to Middle Western university boating generally.

If Cornell this year wins either of the four-mile races to which her crew is committed, it will be in spite of and not because of the 'varsity material left over from last year. Cornell's experience this season has been most unhappy. Beginning the year with all the members of last year's winning 'varsity and Freshmen crews back at work, there was indeed sufficient occasion for Cornell men to view the '97 racing outlook with complacency. There was never a year when rowing material at Cornell was so abundant — five eight-oared crews turned out every night—the 'varsity (the '96 crew intact, with one exception), the second 'varsity, the Annapolis crew (the winning Freshmen of '96), the '97 Freshmen, and a boat which accommodated candidates not placed in any of the others.

The 'varsity worked well at first, and then took a slump from which it never recovered, and during which the Annapolis crew beat it handily at any distance and at every meeting. Threats of a "shake up" were of little avail; the crew rowed well together, but had no life, and seemed little inclined to acquire any. Several changes were made, but about ten days ago Courtney dismissed from the crew all but two of the old 'varsity men, and refilled their places from the Annapolis boat.

Thus at this writing Dalzell, Bentley, Wakeman, King, Oddie, Odell, Savage, and Carter are rowing as the 'varsity crew, all of whom save Bentley and Savage rowed against the naval cadets last month, and five pulled

H. F. Cochems. Shot, 41 ft. 5 in. A. Kraentzlein. 220-Yard Hurdles, 25 3-5 s.


J. H. Maybury. 100 Yards, 9 4-5 s. John Richards. 120-Yard Hurdles, 15 4-5 s.

WISCONSIN UNIVERSITY TRACK TEAM—THE WESTERN INTER-COLLEGIATE CHAMPIONS OF '97.

INTER-COLLEGIATE ATHLETIC CHAMPIONSHIPS, BERKELEY OVAL, NEW YORK, MAY 29, 1897.

Event. 1st place, 5 points; 2d place, 2 points; 3d place, 1 point.	Univ. of Penn.	Yale.	Harvard.	Princeton.	Georgetown.	Boston Univ.	Columbia.	Cornell.	Syracuse Univ.	Trinity.	Wesleyan.	Winner.	Winner's Performance.	Inter-collegiate Record.	Year made.
100-yard dash		2			5				1			Wefers, Fisher, Whittemore.	10 2-5 s.	* 9 4-5 s. B. J. Wefers, Georgetown Univ.	1896
220-yard dash	1			5	2							Colfelt, Wefers, Tewksbury.	22 3-5 "	† 21 1-5 " B. J. Wefers, Georgetown Univ.	1896
440-yard run	1	2				5						Burke, Garvan, Hoffman.	50 2-5 "	49 1-2 " G. B. Shattuck, Amherst.	1892
880-yard run	3		5									Hollister, Lane, A. Grant.	1 m. 58 2-5 "	1 m. 56 4-5 " Evan Hollister, Harvard.	1896
One-mile run	5		1	2								Orton, Cregan, D. Grant.	4 " 25 "	4 " 23 2-5 " G. W. Orton, Univ. of Penn.	1895
One-mile walk	5		2					1				Fetterman, Phillips, Zeller.	6 " 55 4-5 "	6 " 52 4-5 " F. H. Borcherling, Princeton.	1893
120-yard hurdles		6	2									Perkins, Fox, Van Beuren.	16 "	15 4-5 " H. L. Williams, Yale; Stephen Chase, Dartmouth.	1891 1895
220-yard hurdles	1	5	2									Perkins, Morse, Bastian.	25 4-5 "	24 3-5 " J. L. Bremer, Harvard.	1895
Running high jump	5	3-4	3-4	3-4						3-4	–	Winsor, Merwin-Morse, ‡ Carroll-Baxter.	6 ft. 3 in.	6 ft. 3 in. J. D. Winsor, Jr., Univ. of Penn.	1897
Running broad jump	5		1	2								P. J. Remington, Garrett, E. H. Clark.	22 " 4 5-8 "	22 " 11 1-4 " Victor Mapes, Columbia.	1891
Pole vault		5 1-3	2	1-3							1-3	Johnson, Hoyt, Tyler-Clapp-Hurlbut. §	11 " 3 5-8 "	11 " 3 5-8 " B. Johnson, Yale.	1897
Throwing 16-lb. hammer	7	1										Woodruff, McCracken, Chadwick.	136 " 3 "	136 " 3 " W. G. Woodruff, Univ. of Penn.	1897
Putting 16-lb. shot	1	2		5								Garrett, Sheldon, McCracken.	41 " 10 3-4 "	44 " 11 1-2 " W. O. Hickok, Yale.	1895
Bicycle meet	1	2					5								
Total points	35	26 1-12	15 3-4	15 1-12	7	5	5	1	1	3-4	1-3				

* World's record, held jointly by Wefers and John Owen, Jr.
† World's record.
‡ Tied for second place at 6 ft., and divided 3 points.
§ Tied for third place at 10 ft. 9 in., and divided the point.

in the '96 Freshmen boat. The substitutes are Bailey and Raymond, Moore and Spillman, the first two having had seats in the Annapolis boat, and Spillman being the 'varsity captain.

It speaks volumes of praise for the discipline of the Cornell boating department when the 'varsity crew—a winner the previous year—is so completely annihilated, and a 'varsity captain put on the substitute list. But it also reflects discredit upon the men that such drastic measures were made necessary so late in the season. The retirement of the veterans has not resulted (as the newspapers had it) from any offence so specific or so recent as "shortcake." But there has not been conscientious training any of the time since the work began. It really seems inconceivable that a Cornell man should, in this most important year of all rowing years, slight his training; but with some of the men there have been late going to bed, careless eating and living—the things which hurt a man's wind and strength, and that have seriously wrenched Cornell's boating prospects barely a month before her most important race.

So **CORNELL'S PRESENT 'VARSITY** is practically her '96 Freshmen crew redressed—the eight that defeated the Harvard, Columbia, and Univ. of Penn. Freshmen crews last year on the Hudson, and the one which last month beat the naval cadets by two lengths for two miles in 11 m. 15 s.

It is a thoroughly good crew, rather light for a 'varsity—160 pounds average—but very little lighter than the winning crew of last year. Its time is excellent, and the stroke is not a particle different from that of last year, although it differs from the stroke both Harvard and Yale are using this year, principally in being shorter. It has shown good speed for two miles, but is not quite up to the Cornell standard for best crews. There has been little opportunity in the last week for work on the lake, so what it is doing for three and four miles has not yet developed. It is not unlikely that Cornell will rely largely upon what she believes to be the superiority, for four miles, of the Americanized English stroke over the straight English method as adopted by Harvard and Yale.

At the time I last saw the crews, the Cornell boat seemed to have greater pace than Harvard and Yale, but not to run so smoothly between strokes as Harvard, nor to have the suggestion of power that the Yale crew gives. Both the Harvard and the Yale men are superior to Cornell in point of physique. But races are not won on the physique of the men sitting in the boats.

Since the other page of this Department went to press, and as this one is about to go, word comes from Ithaca that Courtney has made another change in the recently chosen 'varsity, putting in Briggs, Spillman, and Moore at stroke, 6, and 3. It is desperately ill luck for Cornell that so many "shake-ups" should be necessary within two weeks of the race. Every day lost now in trying combinations must materially affect Cornell's chances on the 25th.

HARVARD HAS HAD NONE of the difficulty encountered at either Yale or Cornell. In no period of Harvard's athletic history has there been a boating interest to compare with that of this year, and never before within my recollection has a single policy of coaching met with Boston Harvard's approval. It is even a greater undertaking to harmonize Boston Harvard, or Harvard Boston (I have never quite made up my mind which is the more truly descriptive), than to turn out a good eight. A crew developed along modern lines is of itself a novelty at Harvard, but the unity of all the disgruntled rowing shades of Boston Harvard in concerted support of one defined system is nothing short of a nine days' wonder.

And both of these things Mr. R. C. Lehmann has accomplished. What greater claim can a man have on the gratitude of American sportsmen!

How each one of several Boston Harvards I have in mind has refrained from taking unto himself the credit for Mr. Lehmann's visit and work I cannot, I confess, viewed by the light of other days, understand.

SPEAKING OF MR. LEHMANN REMINDS ME of the dinner and reception given to him by the University Athletic Club a week or so ago. Mr. Lehmann has had no entertainment in this country that so frankly and genuinely expressed the esteem in which he is held by American college men. He of course knows that Harvard men keenly appreciate his work for them, but university men generally feel that he has done American boating an inestimable service, and shown extreme sportsmanship in coming over as he has, and we all want him to know how we feel. That was the sentiment which impelled the University Athletic Club, with its membership drawn from Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Columbia, Pennsylvania, Dartmouth, Cornell, and others, to give Mr. Lehmann the glad hand.

It was, too, a most appropriate opening of the club's new home at 19 West Thirty-fourth Street. It gives me unqualified pleasure to note the prosperity of the University Athletic Club, and to commend it to college men. The place it is filling in the university world is so praiseworthy as to warrant its support in every quarter. Not the least commendable of its efforts to give the younger college set an attractive and wholesome club life is the recent amendment to its constitution, which grants to graduates of less than four years' standing a postponed payment of a portion of the initiation fee. In its Thirty-fourth Street house there is ample accommodation for the membership that found the old home too confined, and abundant and handsome facilities for the entertainment of their friends.

THE PRESENT ENCOURAGING CONDITION of Harvard's crew comes not from the return of veteran oarsmen, or even because of a supply of unusually good material. Of the men in the boat to-day, beginning at the bow—Marvin, Bull, Wrightington, Sprague, J. H. Perkins, J. F. Perkins, Goodrich, and Boardman, stroke—which is probably the definite make-up, except in case of accident, Captain Goodrich, J. F. Perkins, and Sprague are the only men who sat in last year's boat, although Bull was a substitute. The substitutes this year are McDuffie, Thomson, Hollister, and Whitbeck.

The material has not been above the average at any time, nor are there exceptionally strong oars among the eight men finally chosen. But a splendid spirit has dominated the oarsmen from the beginning—a spirit which recognized the unanimous backing of the university and urged on the men to their utmost endeavors. In so far the material has been unusually good, and Mr. Lehmann has done the rest.

THE ENGLISH STROKE pulled by Harvard, and that shown in the present work of Yale, have no real essential difference, and no visible difference except that Yale recovers much lower than Harvard. The reach is about the same, and each rows the stroke well out. Harvard does her work much more smoothly at this writing, and seems to recover with less effort. Her general work is cleaner, and the crew has done faster rowing; but Yale gives the impression of greater power.

Harvard has done some rather fast work on occasions, and shown several times a rare turn of speed for a half-mile. It will take a lively crew indeed to get the lead on her at the start.

THE COLUMBIA 'VARSITY has been so handicapped by the rough water which obtains off its boat-house on the Hudson most of the time that good practice has been intermittent, and the eight has not therefore got smoothed out in its work.

Notwithstanding, Mr. Cowles has succeeded in implanting the fundamentals of a stroke which, carried out to its perfection, should give Columbia a faster crew than the one which defeated Cornell in '95. It is not so pretty, perhaps, as the stroke of that year, but it has more reach and power and suggests more pace.

Of last year's crew there are in the '97 boat Stroke Pierrepont, Longacre (7), Carter (6), and Captain Pressprich (2); Putnam, at bow, was a substitute last year. The new men are Shattuck (5), MacKay (4), Lewis (3). The first and last are entirely new to rowing, while MacKay captained the '96 Freshmen.

Physically there will not be a better crew at Poughkeepsie; the men in the waist of the boat are powerful and, judged by the work they frequently do in an afternoon, apparently tireless. If they get smoothed out and improve their blade-work, they ought to make a strong bid for the Cornell-Columbia-Pennsylvania race. At present, the outboard-work is not good; but what seems to me more important is their failure to get hold of the water at the beginning of the stroke. They do not make the most of the long reach, and there is a tendency not to row the stroke out. In other words, the blade is not working much more than half the time it is in the water. This is true of about every man in the boat save Pierrepont. Longacre is naturally the best oar in the boat, but his blade does not do the work it should; it is not more than half covered to begin with, and the catch is weak; there is no drive in his stroke, and that has its influence on all the other starboard men.

No. 2 and bow row in good form, but too much in the air, and they have rowed long enough to do better. No. 5, absolutely new to rowing, gets more drive in his stroke than any other man in the boat except Pierrepont. The men will have to work hard the balance of the month to get on even terms with Cornell.

The Freshmen manage to get good pace out of their boat; more than I saw in the Cornell Freshmen.

Pennsylvania I have not seen.

Yale's Freshmen are travelling faster than Harvard's or Cornell's.

NO CREW OF THE YEAR has done such admirable work under the circumstances as that put forth by the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis. The time permitted the cadets for practice is so limited that attainment of good form is really remarkable. Add to this the further fact of there being but 200 men in the academy, and the splendid work of these young gentlemen may be adequately appreciated. The same handicap is experienced and equal praise due in football and baseball. The cadet at Annapolis and at West Point must be a sportsman indeed to stick to these games. But he does stick to them, and his success has been emphatic. May it never be less!

William D. Connor, who was graduated from West Point last Wednesday at the head of his class, was the captain of the '96 football eleven, and one of the best half-backs on the field.

The Annapolis crew this year was developed under the efficient coaching of Richard (best known at Yale as "Bronco") Armstrong, and the pupils were worthy their teacher. They lost, by about one length, their first race of two miles, May 15, against the Cornell eight, of whom six were subsequently put into the 'varsity boat. But on May 29 they defeated the Univ. of Penn. 'varsity seven lengths in three miles. This was the third annual race, Univ. of Penn. having won the other two. Rough practice water had prevented the cadets from getting into their best form before meeting Cornell.

HAVING WON THE BROWN SERIES, Yale laid off Greenway (that he might be fresh for the first Princeton game), went to Providence, and in a game well played by both sides was beaten.

Having won the first Princeton game at New Haven, and knowing full well the practical impossibility of winning the second at Princeton, Yale again husbanded her strength last Saturday in preparation for the deciding game of the series next Saturday.

Princeton won the second game last Saturday easily enough (16–8), knocking one of Yale's substitute pitchers out of the box; but the significant features of the play, as bearing on the future, were Princeton's seven errors (compared with Yale's two), and the way Yale hit Jayne. Princeton's game was loose—so loose as to shake confidence in her ability to win the deciding game on Saturday next. If she can play a fast, errorless game from the start, Princeton should win; for she is stronger at the bat, has a quicker in-field and a more brilliant out-field. But another such game as that last Saturday will settle her hopes of the '97 triple university leadership. Yale has demonstrated her ability to play without making errors, and to get hits when they are most wanted. In a word, Yale is the steadier, and has a good fighting chance for success.

Harvard is error-making again. Errors and poor base-running lost the Holy Cross game (2–3), and although easily defeating Univ. of Penn. (8–0), she made errors enough to have given away several runs.

Western and Southern inter-collegiate athletic and bicycle championships comment next week. CASPAR WHITNEY.

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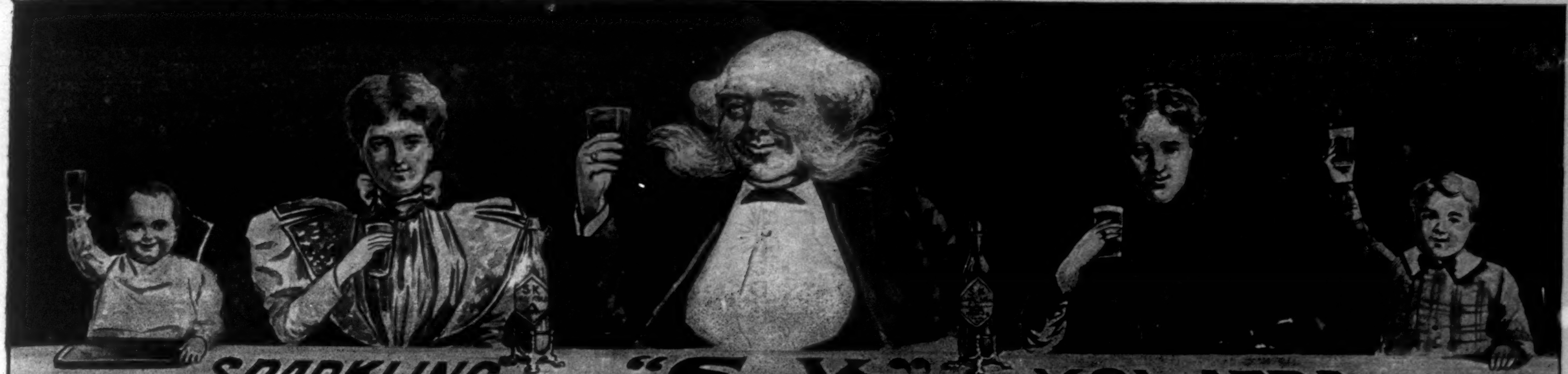

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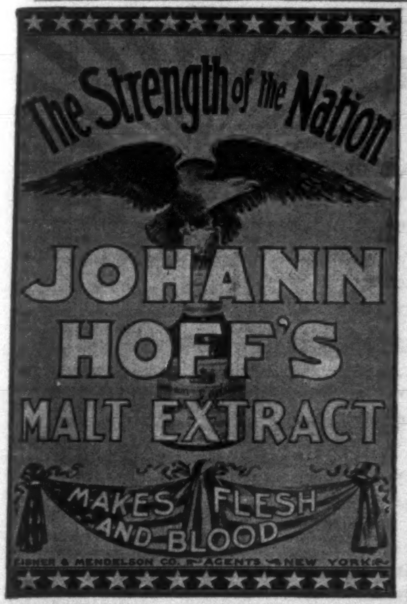
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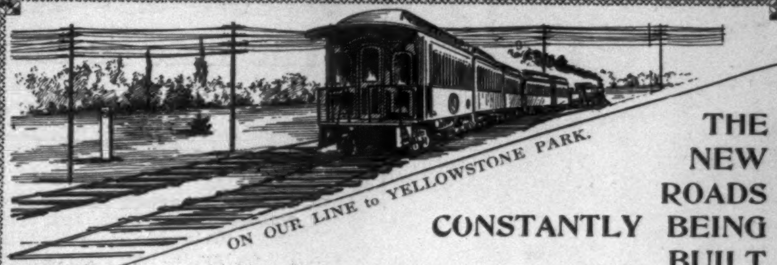
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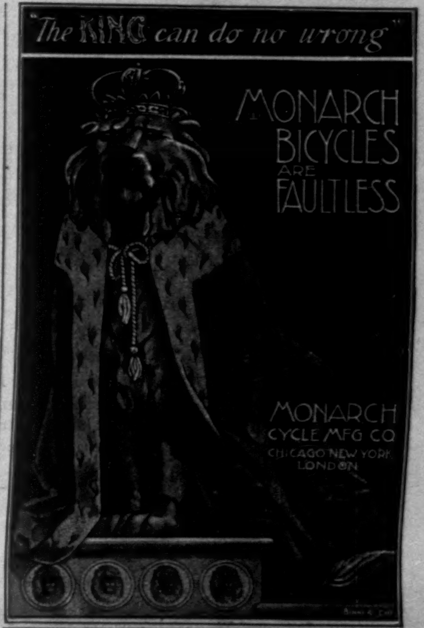
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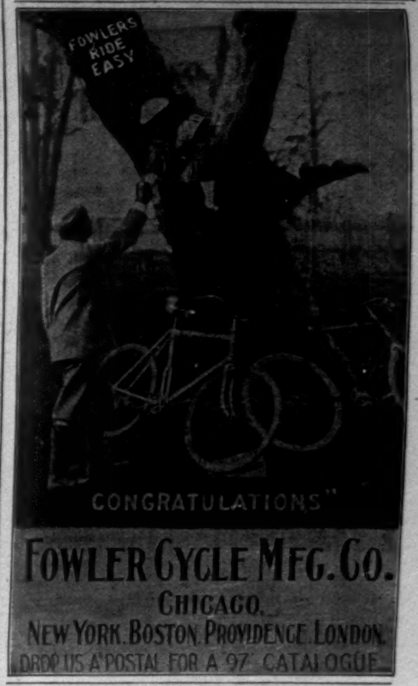
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